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## Association Notes and Editorial Comment

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### SUPPLEMENTARY TRAINING FOR HIGH SCHOOL SCIENCE TEACHERS

THE NEED FOR LARGER NUMBERS of well-trained science teachers is not disputed. As much could be said, perhaps, about all categories. For obvious reasons, however, attention is being widely centered on science and mathematics. Some commentators feel that the statistics in these fields are somewhat off-balance, but no one holds that the need is not serious. It is one of many factors which have drawn public attention to the plight of the schools and have started a slow momentum toward their improvement. For this, hard-working and self-sacrificing school people are grateful.

At the moment, much more is being said about this need than about likely ways and means of meeting it. This is probably as it must be. Any case must be stated before its relative merits can be judged. But at least one practical plan has emerged and is now being tried: the Supplementary Training Program for High School Science Teachers, which is underwritten by the National Science Foundation. Since *THE QUARTERLY* goes into approximately 3,500 high schools and 400 colleges and universities within its 19-state area and has a large additional mailing list as well, this Program is briefly described in the following paragraphs. Teachers of science and mathematics may wish to take advantage of it.

The Foundation has invited twenty-five higher educational institutions to submit proposed training programs for 1957-58. Awards have already been made to the University of Wisconsin and to

Oklahoma A. and M. which have set up plans for this year. Any interested institution may work out its own design. No uniform requirements will be imposed.

Certification requirements in various states differ widely. As far as the North Central Association is concerned with teacher preparation, it lays down criteria for minimum preparation only. By so doing, the Association guarantees the only uniformity that exists in teacher preparation in its territory. Beyond these minimal limits wide diversity exists. This means that in some schools classes in the various sciences have to be assigned to teachers with minimum preparation; otherwise, no science at all could be offered. The National Science Foundation is ready to invest large sums to improve it. Thus teachers with weak, and others with strong, preparation will be accepted for the Program at cooperating institutions.

Each acceptable applicant will receive \$3,000 in 10-month installments with \$30 additional for each dependent. No more than four dependents will be paid for, however. Extra benefits, such as fees and travel expenses up to \$80 for each of two roundtrips will be allowed. No more than \$50 a month of *earned* income will be permitted. Legal counsel for the Foundation has indicated that awards will probably be tax-free. Three years of teaching experience will be required to qualify.

Each cooperating institution must decide whether its program will lead to a master's degree. This may be an important consideration, because many salary schedules provide for substantial increments for that degree. Since the objectives



of the Supplementary Training Program can scarcely be met by the customary master's pattern of study, some institutions, it is said, expect to issue certificates instead. The latter would be appropriate for those who already hold graduate degrees, and in any case, well might be considered equivalent to a master's degree for salary purposes.

As this is being written, these are the main features of the Supplementary Program for High School Science Teachers. It represents a worthy effort. How can the North Central Association promote it?

HARLAN C. KOCH

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION RELATIVE TO THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

ISSUES PERTAINING to the accreditation of programs for the preparation of teachers are not wholly resolved. On March 21, 1956, Secretary Burns of the North Central's Commission on Colleges and Universities issued a progress report from which the following excerpts were taken:

The Committee on Professional Education of the North Central Association<sup>1</sup> met on February 25 to consider recent developments in the accreditation of programs for the preparation of teachers.

Pending exploration of other possible means for solving the problems in this area, the Committee postponed a decision on the proposal of the National Committee of Regional Accrediting Agencies that the accrediting of teacher education programs be assumed by the regional accrediting associations. (Please refer to my letter of February 2, 1956, and the National Commission on Accrediting Report of January 25, 1956.)

The Committee on Professional Education then reaffirmed its position taken on January 5, 1955, that the National Commission on Accrediting should carry the responsibility for the resolution of the controversial issues incident to the establishment and functioning of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. Consideration of possible means by which the issues might best be resolved led the Committee to the following conclusions:

<sup>1</sup> The members for whom this report was prepared are listed on pages 6 and 7 of *THE QUARTERLY* for July, 1955.—EDITOR.

1. That the National Commission on Accrediting should continue to negotiate with NCATE relative to the structure of that body, and
2. That the end of such negotiation should be the formation of a structure which would require that a majority of the voting members of the NCATE be chosen from colleges and universities with attention being paid to representation from types of institutions in proportion to their contribution to the supply of teachers.
3. That the NCATE indicate its acceptance of the principle that its chief area of concern is the professional portion of the program pursued by prospective teachers and that for approval of the liberal arts and other teaching fields it accept the recommendation of the appropriate regional accrediting agency. It follows, of course, that in its appraisal of programs in the liberal arts and other fields pursued by prospective teachers, the regional accrediting agency should give careful consideration to the needs of prospective teachers.
4. That the major portion of the financial support for the accrediting activities of the NCATE should be secured from institutional sources.
5. That a high degree of cooperation between the NCATE and the regional accrediting associations should be encouraged.

The report of the actions of the Committee on Professional Education was placed in the hands of the Executive Secretary of the National Commission on Accrediting prior to the Annual Meeting of the National Commission on March 3, 1956.

Following are the actions of the National Commission on Accrediting relative to the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education as reported in the Commission's *Report to Presidents of Member Institutions*, March 7, 1956:

The Commission, at its March 3, 1956 annual meeting, took the actions regarding NCATE presented herewith:

"To reaffirm the statement and earlier position that the National Commission on Accrediting is in favor of a national accrediting agency for teacher education."

The Commission then discussed the revised structure of NCATE as proposed by the Executive Committee at its meeting of October 24, 1955. Using this proposed revision of the structure as a basis for consideration, the Commission adopted the resolution whereby:

"The National Commission on Accrediting recognizes the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education on the conditions that it change its structure to provide for 'majority institutional control' and that it work closely with the duly constituted authorities of the several regional associations."

In the consideration of structure the Commission acted on the assumption that institutional members would be representative of the different



types of institutions preparing teachers and would be selected by an organization or organizations of such institutions.

The Commission also adopted the following resolution:

"The National Commission on Accrediting authorizes its Executive Committee to add the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education to the approved list of recognized accrediting agencies when in the opinion of the Executive Committee it complies with the provision that there be 'majority control by institutional members'."

The subject of accreditation of programs of teacher education was discussed at the meeting of the Commission on Colleges and Universities, Wednesday morning, April 11, 1956, at the Palmer House, Chicago. The meeting, open to all interested persons, was a large one.

#### NEW FORMULA FOR DISTRIBUTION OF FUNDS TO STATE COMMITTEES

AT ITS JUNE MEETING the Executive Committee of the Association nearly doubled the amount allotted to the nineteen State Committees to promote the work of the Commission on Secondary Schools at the state level. Each State Committee will receive \$850 plus \$1.00 for each member school. In this connection, Chairman Ralph C. Johnson, of the Commission, addressed a communication dated July 2 to his Administrative Committee and to the State Chairmen in which he said in part:

We now have at State Level a wonderful opportunity to expand our program and services. Some State Committees already have projected plans now that our budget has been increased. The big majority of you liked the idea of "Increased Service to Member Schools" and possibly this can be expanded within your state. We can carry out evaluation studies, testing, and many problems peculiar to your situation. Last year 77 new schools were admitted and this year might be the opportune time to show the advantages of N.C.A. to non-member schools. Soon after the Bloomington meeting, I would appreciate a summary of your plans for 1957-58. This information should be publicized.

#### MEMBERSHIP FEE OF DEPENDENTS' SCHOOLS INCREASED

THE ANNUAL MEMBERSHIP FEE of the thirty-eight accredited secondary schools

for the children of members of the Armed Services resident abroad has been increased to \$50 a school. The Executive Committee approved the recommendation that this be done as submitted by Secretary A. J. Gibson, of the Commission on Secondary Schools. Mr. Gibson reported that unusual problems were encountered in maintaining accreditation relationships with these schools, and that the Armed Services have approved the change.

Eight "new" Dependents' Schools were accredited by the Association last April:

Augsburg, Germany  
Baumholder, Germany  
Bitburg, Germany  
Camp Darby, Leghorn, Italy  
Port Lyautey, French Morocco  
Rabat, French Morocco

#### BRIGHT PROSPECTS FOR THE TEACHER EDUCATION STUDY

REASSURING PROSPECTS are in sight for 1956-57, the ninth year of the Cooperative Study of Teacher Education in North Central territory, according to the April issue of the *Teacher Education Bulletin* issued by the Subcommittee on Institutions for Teacher Education. When that publication went to press, incomplete reports showed that nineteen colleges had enrolled for workshop participation—four in Arkansas, one each in Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, and North Dakota, five in Oklahoma, two in South Dakota, and three in Wisconsin. Of this number, two are enrolled for the first time. Mr. C. H. Allen is the coordinator of the Study.

#### PLANS FOR THE SIXTY-SECOND ANNUAL MEETING GOING FORWARD

ON MAY 12, the Advisory Committee on the Program for the Annual Meeting for 1957 met in Chicago and its plans for the meeting which will be held on April 2 through April 5 began to take final form. Its report was approved by the Executive Committee on June 26. General Secretary Boardman was authorized to complete



arrangements along the lines indicated. The general theme will be "Liberal and Professional Education in the Preparation of Teachers."

One feature may be mentioned here: the Tuesday evening Conferences, jointly sponsored by the three Commissions of the Association. In this connection the following items were specifically approved by the Executive Committee:

1. The Committee recommends that this conference be continued, sponsored jointly by the three Commissions and coordinated by the Commission on Research and Service.

2. Believing that the present emphasis on science and technology and the tests and scholarships offered high school graduates tend to control the curriculum of our able students, the Committee recommends that the theme for this Conference be "Maintaining a Desirable Distribution of Liberal and Technical Fields in the Education of Youth."

#### A NEW PUBLICATION, *THE REPORTER*, MAKES ITS DEBUT

*News Notes*, two-and-a-half years old, has given way to *The Reporter*, its successor as the house-organ of the Commission on Colleges and Universities. Number 1, Volume 1, carries the date of issue as June, 1956. *News Notes* was an experimental semi-annual which proved so acceptable as a means of communicating with the colleges and universities of the Association that it was decided to rechristen it with a more appealing and appropriate title. Quite appropriately, the lead item in the first number deals with the reorganization of the Commission, followed by a description of the form and functions of the new District Committees. Space is also given to the moot question of the accreditation of programs for the education of teachers (see other columns of Association Notes and Editorial Comments of this issue of *THE QUARTERLY*). Another column is filled with a recent report of the Committee on Graduate Programs in Education, and this, the first number, closes with "The Secretary's Office as a Clearinghouse." "Your comments—favorable and unfavorable—on the things we are doing and your suggestions as to things we might undertake are

always welcome," says Secretary Norman Burns in the final paragraph.

There are now five stated NCA periodicals: *THE QUARTERLY*, now in its thirty-first year, which displaced the original annual *Proceedings*; the *North Central News Bulletin*, of the Committee on Liberal Arts Education, in its sixteenth volume; the *Teacher Education Bulletin*, of the Subcommittee on Institutions for Teacher Education, in its ninth volume; *NCA Today*, the general news organ of the Association, in its second volume; and *The Reporter*. Each is designed to meet a particular need.

#### UNITED STATES NAVY OCCUPATIONAL HANDBOOK

A COPY of the 1956 edition of the *United States Navy Occupational Handbook* has come to the editor's desk. It is an invaluable supplement to *Your Life Plans and the Armed Forces*, the 160-page publication with which culminated the efforts of the North Central Association to provide authentic information for the guidance of high school youths who are destined to enter the Armed Services. This book, which was released for general distribution in October, 1955, is regularly listed under "Publications of the North Central Association" in each issue of *THE QUARTERLY*.

In his letter of transmittal, Dr. Joseph E. Barber, Head, School Relations Section, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Department of the Navy, said in part:

The objectives of the handbook are well covered in the Title Page, the Foreword, and the Introduction. Each manual is produced in conformance with the Navy's Recruiting Policy for the schools which is printed on the inside front cover. This policy has been endorsed by many of the leading educators of the country.

This publication may be obtained free from any U. S. Navy Recruiting Station, or by writing to the School Relations Section, G810 Navy Annex, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Washington 25, D.C. They are not available to individual recruit prospects, but a copy should be available to every high school and college library, counselor's office, public employment offices or other legitimate organizations that can make it available to numbers of young people.



THE COOPERATIVE STUDY OF SECONDARY  
SCHOOL STANDARDS A SOUND BUSINESS  
AND PROFESSIONAL VENTURE

ON AUGUST 13, Executive Secretary Carl A. Jessen, of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, released a statement of the condition of the business of the Cooperative Study for the half-year from January 1, 1956 to June 30, 1956. The total income from sales was \$5,393.92 for the six-month period which, added to the balance due December 31, 1955, (\$5,195.92) showed a receipt account of \$10,589.51. As of June 30, 1956, the inventory was valued at \$10,996.75. These figures are of interest to the North Central Association because of its pioneer promotion of the Cooperative Study twenty-five years ago. In this connection, readers of THE QUARTERLY should turn to "The Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards After Twenty-one Years," by Mr. Jessen which was printed in the issue for October, 1955. The Cooperative Study was recently reincorporated under the provisions of Title 29, Section 604 of the District of Columbia (1940 edition). Its headquarters are at 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

An Arabic edition of the *Evaluative Criteria* is now available endorsed by the Egyptian Minister of Education. The Ford Foundation has supplied funds for printing copies not only for the schools of

Egypt, but also for mailing to others in the Middle East.

The chairman of the General Committee of the Study, Dean E. D. Grizzell, of the University of Pennsylvania, retired from that office in February of this year, after having been identified with the Study almost from its inception. He has been made an Advisory Member of the Committee with special consultative responsibilities.

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MARK STARR, *Educational Director,*  
*International Ladies' Garment Workers Union*

## Education as an Investment for Freedom<sup>1</sup>

JUST AS WAR is too serious to be left to generals, so education is too vital to be left to educators. Yet it is safe to presume that you, meeting in the sixty-first Annual Meeting of your Association, need no definition of education from an outsider, primarily concerned with workers' education. My job here is to examine freedom and the way in which education can enrich its yield. Organized labor thrives best in a free society and has a great stake in the growth of education for freedom. From the inception of the movement for public education more than a century ago, the unions have been its vigorous supporters.

Usually freedom, like fresh air and health, is prized only when lost. Freedom does not mean the mere absence of restraint. We can be dogmatic and insist that confident and responsible freedom is vitally necessary, indeed indispensable, to healthy growth in education as in life itself. Education cannot flourish in a strait jacket. The closed mind is the dead mind.

To change the metaphor, we are here considering education not as squirrels building a hoard but as sowers scattering seed in the fruitful earth of the oncoming generation for future ever-greater harvests. Education can help men to be, in the words of Prof. H. J. Muller, conscious agents in that process "whereby life is conducted onward and outward, to forms in ever better harmony within themselves,

with one another and with outer nature, endowed with ever keener sentience, deeper wisdom and farther reaching powers."

Nevertheless, in our present state, some freedoms are unrealistic. There is the much quoted statement of Anatole France that under the law both the rich and the poor are forbidden to sleep under the bridges of the River Seine.

To some, freedom means a continuation of the status quo, which education must uphold. Any attempt on the part of the government to regulate big business and big labor is usually attacked as an invasion of freedom. In the early days, the right of the workers to bargain collectively was attacked because it interfered with the freedom of the individual worker and employer. The freedom of employers to combine was recognized long before the workers' right to do likewise was legally sanctioned.

In order to discuss freedom, we always have to come down to specific cases and specific circumstances.

Away back in the early days of the 19th Century, the poet Shelley asked and answered the question:

What is Freedom? Ye can tell  
What is slavery all to well  
For its very name has grown  
To be an echo of your own.

'Tis to work and have such pay  
As just keeps life from day to day  
In your limbs as in a cell  
For the tyrants' use to dwell.

'Tis to be a slave in soul  
And to have no real control  
Over your own selves but be  
But what others make of ye.

<sup>1</sup> The first of two addresses delivered at the Second General Session of the Sixty-first Annual Meeting of the Association in Chicago, Friday, April 13, 1956. Mr. Starr's subject was the theme of this session.



Fortunately, that kind of slavery has disappeared in the last century. But the problem of defining freedom and developing education to retain and improve it is one which remains with us. Modern society, indeed, has freed itself from the bondage to brutish toil from sun-up to sun-down to gain food, clothing, and shelter. At least, freedom from physical want exists potentially for the first time in human development for the  $2\frac{1}{2}$  billion people of our planet. Now men think of other freedoms.

During World War II you will recall that the imagination of mankind throughout the world was inspired by the declaration of the Four Freedoms. These were: the Freedom of Speech, the Freedom of Religion, the Freedom from Fear, and the Freedom from Want. However, this morning we are talking about Freedom in a positive way, and for educators in colleges and secondary schools the freedoms to think, to work, and to teach are surely indivisible. They literally mean for the student, the teacher, and the school and society itself, the freedom to grow. The basic definition of democratic living is the freedom to participate in deciding our laws, electing our public servants and administrators, and having the right to decide important questions of policy. To put it more simply, democracy means that individuals cannot be pushed around by any form of dictatorship.

It is easy to see that freedom cannot be donated or purchased. It must be fought for and won. Men cannot be compelled to be free. They must desire freedom and be prepared to shoulder its responsibilities. Obviously, as our Founding Fathers insisted, men cannot be at the same time both free and ignorant. When freedom in education is threatened, all freedom is menaced. The teacher and the school must prepare our youth both for job competence and civic competence. The school must operate in a society which is in constant change. The hardening of the categories in education is as dangerous to our community as the hard-

ening of the arteries is to a human being.

"Give me the liberty to know, to utter, and to argue freely according to conscience above all liberties," wrote John Milton. Thomas Jefferson insisted that "error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it." And the Bill of Rights protects individual freedom from encroachment by the government: "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances."

Basically, freedom is based upon faith in man's powers to choose the right, to learn from mistakes and to assess conflicting arguments. How but by education can we learn about freedoms and develop powers of judgment?

"When men have realized that time has upset many fighting faiths," wrote Mr. Justice Holmes in the *Abrams Case* in 1917, "they may come to believe, . . . that the ultimate good desired is better reached by free trade in ideas—that the best test of truth is the power of the thought to get itself accepted in the competition of the market, and that truth is the only ground upon which their wishes safely can be carried out. That, at any rate, is the theory of our Constitution. It is an experiment, as all life is an experiment. Every year if not every day we have to wager our salvation upon some prophecy based upon imperfect knowledge. While that experiment is part of our system, I think we should be eternally vigilant against attempts to check the expression of opinions that we loathe and believe to be fraught with death, unless they so imminently threaten immediate interference with the lawful and pressing purposes of the law that an immediate check is required to save the country."

However, there is no absolute freedom, and Justice Holmes suggests "the clear and present danger" which on occasion may limit freedom. Our individual free-



dom must be relative to the rights of others. There is the much-used illustration that my right to swing my fist is limited by the location of my neighbor's nose. Life is complex and sometimes the liberty of one person infringes upon the other. The right of the owners of a corporation must be reconciled with the rights of its workers. Group life implies social discipline. We often must give up small freedoms to secure the larger freedom. The well-educated individual appreciates the freedom to cooperate with others. We are free to set up organs of government in order to give to the individual greater freedoms. In modern times collective action is often necessary to protect the individual. We debate the relations of private and public education and of private and public enterprise. It is such questions as these which give us pause to think and for which there will be no easy final answer.

Certainly, the school should be freed from the pressure of outside groups with vested interests. However, there must be a recognition of the vital relation between the school and the groups which compose our modern community. Both labor and management are increasingly aware of their stake in education as a guarantee of freedom and progress.

As already suggested, physical hunger has been overcome and disease is being conquered. Education now can be utilized to satisfy our intellectual needs and to help us solve *social* problems. Educators are important in the growth of freedom because inevitably they shape its future. Unless their students know enough to compare ideas and social systems in our own and other countries, they are not free to make intelligent decisions.

Liberty nevertheless is not license. We are free only when we control our passions and when we consciously accept the necessary rules of the society in which we live. Freedom is the understanding of necessity and the teacher is the agent whereby the junior citizen understands himself and the community. In our Age of Anxiety men too often try to escape from freedom

and the hard task of examination and decision. Attempts are continually made in education to make moral, cultural, and spiritual values the exclusive appendage of fixed theological belief to the impairment of the necessary separation between Church and State. The dogma of Communism cannot be met by another group of fixed beliefs. Eventually men will prefer freedom and reject authoritarian codes, but good teachers can lessen the danger of detours.

In the present social climate of the United States, we are in danger of falling into the rut of allowing our policy and our methods to be determined by Soviet Russia. We think in terms of competition instead of possible cooperation, even in fields where the latter is possible. However, in such fields as the exchange of artists, scientists, and educators, it is possible for both sides to benefit. When an outstanding Russian violinist comes to the United States, our American artists gain in friendly emulation. The normal person will welcome Soviet doctors when they come to learn about the Salk polio vaccine. Such exchanges establish relations with people on the basis of shared interests and remove the nationalist stereotypes.

Of course, no one can be blind to the need of talking to the rulers of Soviet Russia from the strength of preparedness. Obviously, blindly following or opposing all that Soviet Russia does, will lead us into strange places in which freedom will be in jeopardy. For example, those who blindly try to combat Soviet Russia by imitation will find their own professed adherence to free non-governmental enterprise seriously undermined, even in the matter of Olympic sports. In reverse, it would be foolish to reject all collectivist agencies and public enterprise. Freedom is not a negative matter and it is strongest when it accentuates the positive and constructive relationship between men and nations.

It is always tempting to try to secure freedom by short cuts and by dubious means. Freedom, however, is never the



good end which can be achieved by such methods because, in using the dubious dictatorial means, free men destroy their own integrity. Ends pre-exist in the means in the retention and enlargement of freedom as in other matters.

The unprecedented volume of the production of machines accelerated by automation and atomic energy, is dangerous unless accompanied by the adequate education of men to use them wisely. The growth of free men and women must be the center point of our attention. The main purpose of public education is to unite young men and women in preparation for their common rights and responsibilities of citizens. We have faith that if our institutions and methods are explained, conscious admiration and acceptance will follow. Real loyalty does not come from compulsion or blind acceptance of the *status quo*.

There are many current conflicting views upon the role of the educator. To some the teacher is an intellectual baby-sitter to be blamed for all that the young men and women, placed in his care by inadequate parents and homes, happen to do wrong. To others the teacher is a mailman who delivers in printed form and speech all the information about past cultures and human values that the student will need to find his place in the modern world.

Educators, however, are not mere messenger boys or service-station attendants for society. They should question and re-examine old and new values. Surely, one of the basic contributions of the good teacher should be to create a spirit of honest inquiry and reflection in their students. This process certainly should begin in the high school and be continued through college.

One of America's philosophers, Max Otto, thus described his own teachers in the golden age of liberal education at Wisconsin University:

My professors were centers of aggressive intellectual energy, sources of cultural vision. They were not teachers of lessons, their classes were outposts in the recurring struggle between enlightenment and

superstition, between knowledge and ignorance. And their students were apprentices in the same high venture. . . . I found myself in what seemed to me the very workshop of social reconstruction, permitted to participate in the attempt to expand and elevate the intellectual and moral life of our state, of our country, of mankind.

Teachers should be free to thus inspire their students as the best of all investments for freedom. Incidentally, President Edwin B. Fred's recent reply to critics of the University of Wisconsin continues that positive approach:

Because students must be convinced that they have the freedoms and responsibilities equal to citizens outside the university, we do not enact, and would oppose, restrictions on discussion and inquiry other than those applicable to all citizens in the state. . . . The University of Wisconsin supports the principles of American democracy by demonstrating faith in them. "Faith in freedom, not fear of freedom, is the American heritage."

And in making this declaration, Dr. Fred sustained the opinion of one of his predecessors, Dr. Charles Kendall Adams, who in 1894 declared, "Whatever may be the limitations which trammel inquiry elsewhere, we believe that the great State University of Wisconsin should ever encourage the continual and fearless sifting and winnowing by which alone the truth can be found."

The same basic freedom for creative thinking was thus defined by the late Albert Einstein:

By freedom, I understand social conditions of such a kind that the expression of opinions and assertions about general and particular matters of knowledge will not involve dangers of serious disadvantages for him who expresses them. This freedom of communication is indispensable for the development and extension of scientific knowledge, a consideration of much practical import. In the first instance it must be guaranteed by law. But laws alone cannot secure freedom of expression; in order that every man may present his views without penalty there must be a spirit of tolerance in the entire population. Such an ideal of external liberty can never be fully attained but must be sought unremittingly until scientific thought, and philosophical and creative thinking in general, are to be advanced as far as possible.

One challenge to freedom which our forefathers did not face was the use of the mass media to make us conscious or unconscious devotees of conformity. Of

course, there are areas where standardization and conformity are necessary and useful. Who would ask for variety in sewers or in railroad tracks? However, when on television one person can simultaneously influence the minds of 20-30 million people, we are in danger of standardizing public opinion.

Educators particularly should be alert to use education to create men and women of independent thought and integrity. Here freedom in education must be retained because its loss would imperil the growth of free men who should be properly considered as the end product of all our organized efforts.

Once, not so long ago, it was the fashion to talk about the maturity of our economy and to envisage a slowing down in our rate of advance.

However, we now think in terms of expansion and we talk of tapping new natural resources to replace those within sight of exhaustion. The interdependence of the modern world and its accelerated rate of development widen the challenge to our understanding. Modern research and technical advance are considering how we can find extra growing space in a new space world outside our planet.

Hence, our investment in education must be increased in order to be sure that we are masters of our fate, culturally, technically, and economically. The quality of our thinking will determine the quality of our civilization which, all of us agree, needs constant attention and improvement. We must be concerned with the problems of the spirit as well as with those which physical knowledge and mechanical invention can solve. We have to make sure that modern advances do not make man into a robot of his own inventions. Particularly in education we have to provide an antidote for a too-narrow specialization, and concern ourselves with values. The huge concentrations of power in big business, big government, and big labor demand a greater social skill to control and administer them. Fortunately, both the large cor-

poration and the large union are becoming regarded more as a public trust. The big corporations are training their executives not only for technical skills but in the liberal arts. Labor unions cooperate with higher education.

One of the difficulties which we face is the relative failure of voluntary organizations to cope with many of our community responsibilities. A sense of the community is often missing. Instead of being influenced by our neighbors in our own towns and cities, that primary communication is being replaced by the mass media.

From my own experience in the labor unions, I know that their leaders are taking a larger view of their responsibilities. They know that many of their decisions affect the public good. They are prepared to replace any partisan propaganda with a discussion of the general welfare. Enlightened employers, I think, are prepared to adopt a similar attitude. Such reciprocal trust can only grow in use.

In the past, labor education was developed partly to overcome indoctrination for a *status quo* in which Labor suffered only a precarious right to exist. Now colleges do a better job in teaching industrial relations, in preparing for increased leisure, in understanding the creative functions of government, in meeting the dangers of bureaucracy and of bigness and in planning for freedom.

We all certainly need to understand how by appropriate education freedom can be applied to a development of civil rights. Education, of course, is the only sure and permanent way whereby discrimination, based on race, creed, or national origin, can be finally destroyed. As a concrete example, we shall have to make sure in the new technical education made necessary by automation that the Negro worker gets an equal opportunity to master the new technical skills.

In the old days the influence of home, church, and school was paramount. Now the so-called comics, the tabloid newspapers, the movies, radio, and television



are important factors in creating attitudes. Educators who are concerned about the manipulation of men through the misuse of mass media and about the emphasis on quantity rather than quality in production, will find Erich Fromm's analysis of modern society in his recent book, *The Sane Society*, very valuable. Fromm's encyclopedic knowledge of history, philosophy, and economics supplements his skill as a psychoanalyst, as he suggests how we can achieve a life based on reason, love, dignity, and responsible participation in community life. In previous writings he has shown how baffled men tried to *escape* from freedom by submission to a given leader, race, or state. Now he warns against the dangers of robot-like conformity.

To those who sit contentedly on the pollyanna escalator of progress, Dr. Fromm quotes challenging statistics on the present-day rate of suicides and other evidence of the lack of social mental health. He reminds those who rejoice in the spread of education that:

We have a literacy rate above 90 per cent of the population. We have radio, television, movies, a newspaper a day for everybody. But instead of giving us the best of past and present literature and music, these media of communication, supplemented by advertising, fill the minds of men with the cheapest trash, lacking in any sense of reality, and with sadistic phantasies which a halfway cultured person would be embarrassed to entertain even once in a while.

Another challenge and opportunity comes from the fact that modern society has available an unprecedented amount of leisure to waste or to wisely use. There are welcome signs that television programs may shift from parlor games and quiz contests to a more worthy use of this powerful medium. Hopeful endeavors are being made at various levels of education, including adult education, to help us become the masters of our social fate. The mind which split the atom must unite the world. The size of modern institutions and the dangers of their bureaucratic administration are already receiving attention.

Peter M. Blau, for example, closed his

"Dynamics of Bureaucracy" with hope that free men could control past evils of bigness:

The myth of the ignorance of the masses will be dissolved: the belief that most employees are incapable of anything beyond sheeplike adherence to detailed rules will be replaced by a better understanding of the ways in which the challenge of responsibility promotes competent performance of duties. The myth of the indispensability of leadership will be discarded: the assumption that disciplined conduct is synonymous with centrally governed conduct will give way to precise distinctions between the bureaucratic authority necessary for co-ordination and uniformity, on the one hand, and the hierarchical restraints that interfere with operations by engendering profound feelings of inequality and apathy, on the other. Finally, the myth of the magical power of fear will be repudiated: the notion that anxieties about losing one's job furnish the best incentives for performing it well will be superseded by the recognition of economic security as a prerequisite for intelligent and interested execution of professional tasks. (Quoted from *New Republic*, March 5, 1956, p. 20.)

Here are the goals of an investment in education. The educator should have the freedom to think, to work, and to teach with his eye upon the ever-challenging and changing nature of our society. "Prove all things; hold fast to that which is good," advised the apostle Paul. The educator should not mould the mind of the student according to the pattern of a party, of special groups, or of a dictatorial state. Educators, who have striven to acquire knowledge and wisdom, have the duty to help their students' minds develop themselves and to help create the critical spirit of free judgment upon which all progress rests.

And should you meet on your governing Boards those who think that freedom in education is utopian, and that education must confine itself to the immediate and the practical, refer them to Judge Learned Hand who asserted:

As soon as we cease to pry about at random, we shall come to rely upon accredited bodies of authoritative dogma, and as soon as we come to rely upon accredited bodies of authoritative dogma, not only are the days of our Liberty over, but we have lost the password that has hitherto opened to us the gates of success as well. Even in that very technology on

which they so much pride themselves, the totalitarians in the end will fail; for they stand upon the shoulders of generations of free inquiry. No doubt they will try to keep their hands off materially profitable activities; but they will finally learn that you cannot put men's minds in water-tight compartments; you cannot have a nation, each one of whose citizens is half slave and half free, any more than you can have a nation in which half are wholly slave and half are wholly free. Where heterodoxy in what men prize most is a crime, fresh thinking about anything will disappear. Even the loaves and fishes will not be multiplied.

Your students invoke your aid in the

words of Henry Fielding in his "Invocation to Genius:"

Teach me, which to thee is no difficult task, to know mankind better than they know themselves. Remove that mist which dims the intellect of mortals, and causes them to adore men for their art, or to detest them for their cunning, in deceiving others, when they, are, in reality the objects only of ridicule, for deceiving themselves. Strip off the thin disguise of wisdom from self-conceit, of plenty from avarice, and of glory from ambition . . . 'till mankind learn the good nature to laugh only at the follies of others and the humility to grieve at their own.



BOYD CAMPBELL, *President, Chamber of Commerce of the United States*

## Education and Business—An Imperative Partnership<sup>1</sup>

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IT IS A HIGH PRIVILEGE to be here and to bring you the greetings and best wishes of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

I am a small businessman from the Deep South. We are experiencing a tragic era of controversy over a vastly complex problem. Education is at the heart of this problem. The areas of agreement about it are altogether too limited.

I shall make no further reference to it. However, on account of our mutual awareness of it, I am particularly appreciative of the confidence which you have manifested in me through your invitation to appear on this program.

We at the National Chamber are utterly convinced of the need for greater communication between education and business. One of our basic aims is to raise the educational levels of youth and adults and to build a better understanding of the American economic system.

This is a continuing effort—and it is designed to narrow any gulfs of misunderstanding that may exist between the classroom and—shall we say—the counting-house.

It was many years ago, of course, but I have been a teacher and a school administrator, and to that extent—

"I have eaten your bread and salt. I have drunk your water and wine. The deaths ye died I have watched beside, and the lives ye led were mine."

Today, I want to talk to you about

education from the viewpoint of a businessman, because it is from business that I earn my bread and salt. Education and business have become an imperative partnership.

About eleven years ago the National Chamber, after research of more than a year by a trained and competent staff, published the first edition of *Education—An Investment in People*.

This study established the direct relationship between the individual's level of education and his earning power. It demonstrated that communities with the highest education levels had the highest economic levels. In a word, the higher the education level, the higher the living standard.

Just to be sure of our ground, we have twice re-surveyed the relationship of education and living standards and each time we have come up with a more conclusive answer—and *Education—An Investment in People* is now in its third edition.

I know it is an oversimplification, but I like to think of the correlation of education and business as it applies to my own vocation. I sell pencils, but only to those who can write. Every time a child learns to write I have a new customer. I sell books, but only to those who can read. Every time a child learns to read, I have a new customer. And as these children advance from one educational level to another, they buy more books and pencils and my business gets better and better.

Some unkind critic of Mississippi has said that all we have learned about agriculture since Appomattox is that one Yankee tourist is worth a bale of cotton and is a whole lot easier to pick. Yes, we

<sup>1</sup> The second of two addresses delivered at the Second General Session of the Sixty-first Annual Meeting of the Association in Chicago, Friday, April 13, 1956. The theme of the session was "Education as an Investment for Freedom."

have learned that; but we have also learned some other things, among which is a fact of great economic-social importance. We have learned that people are our greatest assets and that our most productive investment is in education.

Of course I am for education—more and better education. It is the economic breath of life for me and for every businessman in America, regardless of the nature of his business.

The correlation of business and education has been so clearly established that it is almost axiomatic, and yet we are constantly losing sight of it. We not only drift into the habit of thinking of business and education as being unrelated, but we too frequently consider them antagonistic. There has been too much shadowboxing—too much misunderstanding of each about the other.

Businessmen have been too much disposed to look upon educators as impractical theorists who do not know the value of a dollar, and educators have been too much disposed to regard businessmen as a bunch of tax-dodging, penny-pinching skinflints. Somewhere between the two extremes the truth is to be found.

Education should vacate the ivory tower and business the counting house, so the two can meet on the vast areas of mutual agreement and talk things over. Such communication should be preceded by an effort of each to understand more about the other.

The businessman should think of the educator as a person—a professional person who is dedicated to enhancing human welfare, to interpreting life's basic values, and to explaining our priceless heritage.

On the other hand, the educator should think of the businessman as one who has the same motivations and who wants to give people greater purchasing power, to give them a sense of belonging, and to help them understand the basic freedoms that make our country great.

These people, professional and lay, have many important questions to ask of each other, such as:

Does business recognize and accept the responsibility of providing employment for the more than 800,000 young men and women who, upon leaving high school and college annually, seek to become a part of the work force of America?

Does business constantly consult with education as to what it desires from the schools and as to how the products can best be trained and adapted to the needs of industry?

Does education understand the progressive nature of our economy so that it can speak the language when business and education are planning jointly for the future?

Does education understand that the beginning and the end of good public relations or salesmanship is the approach from the customer's point of view? Therefore, does it sell itself on the proposition that education is good for business and that it is not an end within itself?

When teachers and taxpayers come together as people, people motivated by common ideals, people who love their country and who are committed to serving it, they will not longer be separated by misunderstanding. Misunderstanding is a road block. It can be a crippling deterrent toward constantly higher levels of living, which is the pattern of our society.

There was never a time in our history when education was as important to our well-being, to our very survival, as it is today. The ideological and physical conflicts which engulf the world must be resolved in the realm of the mind and the spirit. Surely our free society cannot be preserved if our only defense is the matching of numerical forces against those who would destroy us.

When we interpret the greatness of America in terms of the superiority of automobiles, telephones, and bathtubs, we make the same terrible mistake as the followers of Karl Marx. Let us hope that our educational institutions will never fail to underscore the immutable truth that the integrity of the individual is the best insurance against the abject materialism that promises only a full stomach at the expense of an empty soul.

In the past quarter-century our knowledge about *things* has vastly increased, but has our understanding of *people* kept pace? Through the partnership of education and business we have become a great



warehouse of scientific and industrial knowledge. From this warehouse we hope that all the world can draw for peaceful purposes. Is it not equally important that we become a warehouse of the social sciences?

As technology has raced ahead in ten-league boots, has the more delicate science of social engineering kept pace? As our material gains have reached gigantic proportions, has our moral and spiritual growth been correspondingly great?

It is in the answer to these questions that education and business will find one of their greatest challenges. Business and education cannot accomplish their destinies if they are bound together only for economic advantage and technological advancement. If the duplex of education and business stands on such foundations alone, it will be as a house that is built upon sand.

But I would be the last to imply that the structure of our society is so imperiled. If there is an imbalance between our material and spiritual progress to the disadvantage of spiritual values, there are many evidences that it is being corrected. Perhaps it is not inappropriate to mention a few.

One of the best-selling books of many, many months is the life story of a young minister. Another best-seller was authored by a minister. One of the most popular of all television speakers is a Catholic clergyman, and a Protestant evangelist draws capacity crowds all over the world.

We are developing a more enlightened perspective toward the age-old controversy as to poverty and wealth. Countless

generations have been reared upon the formula that to be poor is to be virtuous and to be wealthy is to be sinful. We know better today. While other nations may have rejected that half of the old formula which deals with poverty, it has remained for us to question both halves of it to the infinite betterment of all mankind.

We are creating our own philosophy that poverty is not of necessity a blessing and that wealth is a public trust. We say in effect that it is the use of men's means, material or otherwise, by which their value is measured. The sin is the unused talent, personal or minted. We reject both the dollar and the man who refuses to rise to the opportunity for service to society.

Through the continuing and more closely knit partnership of education and business, we will move to increasingly higher plateaus of general well-being, and the American Revolution, therefore, will be one without end. Here in America—not to the exclusion of other nations, but perhaps more than anywhere else—is the desire of the people to do justice, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with God.

I am convinced that there is a reason for this. I firmly believe it is because we have enjoyed more liberty than other nations, more respect for the worth of the individual, less interference with private lives, less inclination to standardize the citizen.

Having all these things, it is a question of eternal vigilance to preserve them, not alone for ourselves, but, let us hope, for the sake of all who look to us to point the way to a better tomorrow.

# The United States Naval Academy<sup>1</sup>

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"FOR THE FORSEEABLE FUTURE, nothing is in prospect which will diminish our need for continued control of the seas, the surface of the seas by ships, the underseas by submarines, the air over the seas by naval airpower. As a matter of fact, the advent of the atom, the jet, the missile have *increased*, not decreased the importance of sea power."

These words, by the present Secretary of the Navy, Honorable Charles S. Thomas, serve to point up the fact that although the tools of warfare have changed, and with them certain tactics, the basic need for control of the seas has not in any sense diminished since our Navy first began.

In order to carry out its assigned missions and to keep abreast of the changing times, the Navy has rapidly advanced in size, power and scope of interest. With this progress, however, another vital problem presented itself: the need for a means of providing well-educated officers of high ideals and dedication to purpose for careers in the Naval service.

Before the establishment of the Naval Academy, midshipmen received their training at sea in the school of experience, under the tutelage of "Professors of Mathematics," whose mission it was to introduce the students to the theoretical side of their professional education. The scope of this training was naturally limited and with the rapid advances in marine science, it soon became apparent

that some other means of educating the midshipmen had to be inaugurated. A Naval School as such was needed where the training would be standardized and broadened.

Many capable officers had advocated this strongly, among them being John Paul Jones, David Dixon Porter and John Rodgers. These gentlemen envisioned a naval officer as not only a courageous leader in battle, a cunning tactician and expert navigator, but a man schooled in human relations and thoroughly aware of the part the Navy plays in international relationships.

Early efforts to establish a naval school ashore amounted to feeble and disorganized attempts to educate midshipmen at Navy Yards. These were on the whole unsuitable and unsatisfactory for many reasons. Finally, the then Navy Secretary, George Bancroft, obtained Fort Severn from the army and established, near the city of Annapolis, the first Naval School on October 10th, 1845. Here the first class of 87 midshipmen was taught such subjects as arithmetic, geometry, English grammar and composition, geography and foreign languages. The course lasted two years ashore and was augmented by three more at sea after which period the midshipman became an officer.

Today, at the United States Naval Academy, the new academic year will commence with approximately 3,800 young men from all parts of the country, appointed and sworn in as Midshipmen, U. S. Navy. They will undergo a four year program of academic study and military-professional training totaling 156 semester hours, in order to prepare them properly to pursue a naval career.

<sup>1</sup> This is the second in a series of three articles about the Academies in which officers for the Armed Services are trained. In the January, 1956, issue of *THE QUARTERLY*, Lt. Col. William C. Cox described the nation's newest service college, the United States Air Force Academy. The final number in this series will narrate the educational procedures at the United States Military Academy at West Point.



The Naval Academy is neither a university nor a training school. It is distinctly a naval college, the four year "undergraduate" college in the larger "Navy university." The Superintendent of the Naval Academy carries out his duties under the administrative supervision of the Chief of Naval Personnel, and exercises command of the Academy as both a military establishment and an educational institution. He is assisted militarily by a staff, the Commandant of Midshipmen and the Heads of the several Academic Departments, all of whom today are commissioned officers of the Naval Service. Both officers and civilians make up the faculty of the Naval Academy; the over-all ratio is approximately 60 per cent officer instructors to 40 per cent civilian professors. Among the officer instructors are representatives of the Marine Corps, Army and Air Force.

Between departments, the officer-civilian ratio varies radically. For example, in the professional departments, such as Ordnance and Gunnery, there are 100 per cent officers, while in the Departments of English, History and Government and Foreign Languages the instructors are predominantly civilian. In the Department of Electrical Engineering the effort is made to have equal numbers of officer and civilian instructors.

The scholarly standards of our instructors are high. The officers are carefully selected for assignment to the Academy by the Bureau of Naval Personnel for their teaching ability and academic background. A civilian is required to have his Master's degree and a year of successful college teaching behind him before he can become a member of the teaching staff. Thirty per cent have Doctor's degrees and a not inconsiderable portion of the military faculty have Master's degrees. At this time, the Naval Academy is the only one of the service academies which uses civilians on its faculty.

One unique feature of the Naval Academy is that the curriculum is fixed. Each midshipman takes precisely the same four

year course, except for a choice of one of six foreign languages. The fixed curriculum permits a mutually supporting arrangement of study and hence a high order of interdepartmental integration.

It is highly important that a naval officer acquire the ability to think logically and scientifically. This does not necessarily mean a developed aptitude for the mathematical sciences, but rather the ability to undertake a scientific and logical approach to problems, the capacity to break them down into their elements in order to analyze them and affect their logical solutions. A Naval Officer must also have the ability to recognize and analyze critically the national and international economic and social problems of our times. Foreign and domestic economic policies are determining considerations in naval activities.

The Naval officer must understand people. He must know how to organize and to exercise command, how to cooperate and obtain cooperation. He must be articulate in both his written and oral communications.

Most universities offer a wide variety of subjects in order to permit the student to select a curriculum of study which best prepares him for the career work in which he has a particular interest. Here at the Naval Academy, the student, by virtue of his interest in selecting a naval career at the outset, is given a fixed program of study which has proved by experience to be that which will best prepare him for future work in the Navy. For this primary reason, and also because the four year course is considered to be the minimum program necessary to meet the requirements, the curriculum is fixed.

Approximately one fourth of the curriculum is in the humanities and social studies, one half in mathematics, the physical sciences and engineering, and the remainder in military-professional studies and physical education. Each midshipman must pass each subject each term; the normal collegiate practice of allowing students to repeat failed subjects and still

keep up with their class is not permitted.

The curriculum is supported ably by the extracurricular professional clubs, through which the midshipman who has a natural bent in any field can extend his curriculum coverage in that field. Many have met with success in presenting papers which are the result of their own independent research and efforts outside of their regular study in classroom work.

It might be well to mention here that the Navy recognizes that there is a basic difference between training and education. Both are, of course, vital in the development of the Navy's personnel. In order that specific training may proceed logically, a basic education in fundamentals, which provides necessary background, is indispensable to further development and broader understanding. By close integration of theory and practice, the Naval Academy achieves a balance in the curriculum which best prepares the officer for his work after graduation.

Each graduate of the four year course receives a Bachelor of Science degree although this does not carry the designation of any specialization. The course emphasizes basic education in the humanities, sciences, and the concepts of the naval profession. Although a large portion of the course is in the areas of science and engineering, emphasis is on broad fundamentals rather than on any one selected field.

A final facet of the discussion of the curriculum at the Naval Academy concerns the constant review to keep it modern and up-to-date. This is done by the Academic Board internally and by the Board of Visitors externally. The Board of Visitors, composed of distinguished educators, businessmen and Members of Congress, visit the Academy once each year to inquire into the progress and conditions there, and during their visit, give much thought and consideration to the curriculum and other programs. As a result of these reviews, the Academy has for example, recently revised the curriculum to include the basic features

of the use of nuclear energy in power plants.

Outside of the formal classroom work, one of the most important features of the Academy's instruction is in the field of leadership and command. It is not enough that a student simply acquire an adequate educational background for his work as an officer; he must also learn the principles which govern in the daily handling of men. In a refutation of the adage that "leaders are born, not made," the midshipman is taught the essentials of effective leadership and given ample opportunity to develop self assurance and confidence. Although not all "born leaders," these officers will go on to the Fleet and distinguish themselves as effective leaders of fighting men.

The Midshipman organization itself supports this program of training. The Brigade is administered under the Commandant of Midshipmen by a midshipman officer organization composed of midshipmen of the senior or First Class. By a system of rotation of platoon, company, battalion, regimental and brigade commanders, the opportunity for exercising leadership is afforded to as many of the senior midshipmen as is practical. In many other ways, during his watch standing and performance of administrative duties, the prospective officer is given a chance to apply the lessons of leadership. In his daily contact with members of the other classes, junior to him, the senior midshipman is required to evaluate the performance of others. This helps prepare him for his work as an officer, where he will be observing his own organization closely in order to seek improvements and eliminate, or at least reduce, costly errors and mistakes.

An interesting feature of the four year course is the summer practice cruise. During the midshipman's second, third and fourth summers at the Academy, he is permitted to put the theories he has learned in the classroom into practice aboard a warship, cruising in deep waters. On these cruises, which frequently carry



him to foreign ports, the midshipman is integrated into the ship's organization, taking his turn on watch at the helm, in the engine room and at the guns. During his third summer, he makes this cruise aboard a carrier, where he will not only observe naval air operations, but as operations permit, he actually participates in flying operations. This all serves to broaden the student officer's education, for he sees put into daily practice, and participates in, the things he is learning from the textbook.

The primary mission of insuring the freedom of the seas, thus keeping open the sea lines of communication and protecting the United States, is a task which requires the Navy to operate under, on and above the open waters of the world. In addition to operations at sea, the Navy has a vital interest in land warfare, for our amphibious forces play an important part in global strategy; our naval aviation is an integrated tool of warfare without which in this "Air Age" we could not conceivably carry out our mission, and with the new nuclear power plant the submarine has grown into an even more formidable and potent weapon. The Navy has need of scientists in practically all fields of engineering, and with them the technically qualified naval officers who

will pursue the programs of research and development. There is need for skilled leaders in the fields of personnel management and administration, supply and naval construction, as well as in the scientific fields.

While the midshipman is at the Naval Academy, he is given a sample of as much of all this as is practical. No attempt is made to train him in any of the specialties mentioned, for he will no doubt have to eventually complete some form of post graduate training should he desire to specialize.

The United States Naval Academy, situated in the colonial city of Annapolis, the capital of Maryland, stands uniquely today as the only institution of its kind in the United States whose sole purpose is to provide properly educated and trained career officers for the United States Navy. Here, the words of one of the Navy's finest leaders of fighting men, inscribed on the tomb of his final resting place, serve to guide the midshipmen and their instructors to their ultimate goal:

It is by no means enough that an officer should be a capable mariner. He must be that, of course, but also a great deal more. He should be as well a gentleman of liberal education, refined manners, punctilious courtesy and the nicest sense of personal honor.—JOHN PAUL JONES

# Improving Our Selection of Foreign Graduate Students<sup>1</sup>

ADMINISTRATORS, TEACHERS, and academic counselors can readily attest to differences in scholastic achievement among foreign graduate students. While some of them experience a minimum amount of difficulty and attain their educational objectives rather easily, others experience considerable difficulty and do not attain their educational objectives. Invariably the latter students state that they have "lost face," that they dread to return to their native countries as failures. For them, any value which may be attributed to the educational experiences they have received during their graduate training must certainly be weighed against the problems which have developed in the personal-emotional area of their adjustment.

Better selection of foreign applicants for graduate study by American colleges and universities could have prevented much of this failure. In this article, the writer examines some procedures which could contribute to the better selection of applicants from abroad.

That the United States government has a deep concern in encouraging students from other lands to come here may be gleaned from statements made by former President Harry S. Truman:

We must embark on a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advances and indus-

trial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas. . . . The United States is preeminent among nations in the development of industrial and scientific techniques. The material resources which we can afford to use for assistance of other peoples are limited. But our imponderable resources in technical knowledge are constantly growing and are inexhaustible. I believe that we should make available to peace-loving peoples the benefits of our store of technical knowledge in order to help them realize their aspirations for a better life.<sup>2</sup>

That we as educators and counselors should be particularly concerned about the failures among our foreign graduate student population is readily understood when we pause to reflect upon the influence which such failures have upon the students' attitudes toward the United States, our educational institutions, and even our way of life—attitudes which they will take back to their native lands. We would hardly expect students who have failed to foster international understanding and good will between the United States and the countries that they represent. It would seem, therefore, that a major responsibility of the admissions personnel is to select those foreign students who will profit most from graduate training.

On what basis should foreign students be selected? Fisher<sup>3</sup> and Southwick<sup>4</sup> have emphasized the difficulty administrators face in selecting students from abroad.

<sup>2</sup> Harry S. Truman, Inaugural Address, Washington, D. C., January 20, 1949. Published in *Vital Speeches*, XV (February 1, 1949), 227.

<sup>3</sup> Edgar G. Fisher, "Foreign Students on the Campus," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXI (July, 1946), 545.

<sup>4</sup> Arthur F. Southwick, "Evaluating Credentials of Foreign Students," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXII (July, 1947), 534.

<sup>1</sup> A concise presentation of an ever-present and growing problem. Mr. Hountras, a young instructor in his second year of university experience, deals with the proximate problem, namely, admission. The editor therefore suggests that another writer, say with a score of years' experience in directing graduate programs of non-English speaking students, especially on the doctoral level, treat the farthest aspects and what lies between. Such a story, replete with personal details, could be a massive one.—EDITOR.



Transcripts are of little help since the scheme for marking varies from country to country and often within the same country. Moreover, there is no accredited list of foreign institutions. Nor can the institution ascertain with any precision the extent of mastery of the English language. In view of these difficulties, Koenig<sup>1</sup> has concluded that each applicant should be dealt with individually and little attention paid to precedent.

While Koenig's observations may be true with respect to evaluating the credentials foreign students present for admission, there is still much room for improvement in our over-all policies with respect to admitting foreign students to graduate study. The Miller Analogies Test (MAT) was employed with some success in differentiating between probationary and non-probationary foreign graduate students at the University of Michigan.<sup>2</sup> The mean raw score of all probationary students on the MAT was 29.40 (N=101), whereas the mean raw score of all non-probationary students was 34.74 (N=133). The difference between these two means was statistically significant at the 5 per cent level. It was concluded that the Miller Analogies Test showed considerable promise in selecting those applicants from abroad who can succeed in graduate school. Furthermore, it was suggested that our admissions procedures would be greatly improved if satisfactory performance on a high-level scholastic aptitude test, such as the MAT, were required prior to granting admission to foreign students for pursuit of graduate study.

A second way in which we could improve our admissions policies would be to pay more attention to handicaps in English than we have heretofore. Riley and Peterson<sup>3</sup> and Vaswani,<sup>4</sup> among other

investigators, have reported that foreign students experienced difficulty in writing term papers and taking lecture notes. They have stated that an important contributing factor in the academic difficulties experienced by foreign students is the insufficient knowledge of the English language which they possess at the time of their entrance into a graduate program. A feasible preventive would be a requirement that all non-English-speaking graduate students pass an examination in basic English as a prerequisite to enrollment in a graduate course for credit. This test could well be devised and administered by the English departments in the various graduate schools. Students whose performance on such an examination is not satisfactory should be required to enroll in a language program designed to overcome such language handicaps prior to admission.

A further improvement would be realized if graduate schools set up higher academic standards for admission. Cieslak,<sup>5</sup> in a study of 122 institutions of higher learning, found that while admission practices with respect to foreign students varied, there was considerable agreement in the qualifications deemed desirable. In descending order of importance of the requirements most frequently mentioned were the following: (1) sufficient knowledge of English, (2) finances, (3) superior academic record, (4) a certificate equivalent to a high school diploma, and (5) good health. Moreover, at least two investigators have attested to the advisability of admitting only students with superior scholastic records.

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<sup>3</sup> Frank Riley and James A. Peterson, "Foreign Visitors on American Campuses," *Survey*, LXXXV (August, 1949), 428.

<sup>1</sup> Clara H. Koenig, "The Evaluation of Credentials from Foreign Countries," *College and University*, XXVII (October, 1951), 14.

<sup>2</sup> P. T. Hountras, "The Use of the Miller Analogies Test in Predicting Graduate Student Achievement," to be published in the fall or winter issue, *College and University*.

<sup>4</sup> Hari V. Vaswani, *A Study of the Problems of Foreign Students at the Berkeley Campus of the University of California*, p. 146. Ed.D. dissertation, University of California at Berkeley, 1950.

<sup>5</sup> Edward C. Cieslak, *A Study of Administrative and Guidance Practices for Students from Abroad in Representative Collegiate Institutions of the United States*, p. 285. Ed.D. dissertation, Wayne University, 1953.

Thompson,<sup>1</sup> in reporting the remarkable record of foreign students at Ohio State University, has attributed this success to the rigid requirements that must be met before admission is granted—ten students refused for every one admitted. Elsewhere the writer, in view of the subsequent academic difficulties experienced by students admitted provisionally, has questioned the practice of admitting students who do not meet the standards for regular admission.<sup>2</sup>

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It should be noted that one way in which American colleges and universities can render service in international understanding and can contribute to the im-

provement of cultural standards in foreign lands is to select only those foreign graduate applicants who can become responsible "ambassadors" of the American way of life—its science and technology, its vast resources, and its democratic values and ideals. In conclusion, institutions offering graduate study to foreign students may well consider the advisability of adopting the following procedures for improvement of current admissions policies:

1. The requirement that foreign students perform satisfactorily on a scholastic aptitude test, such as the Miller Analogies Test.

2. That sufficient mastery of the English language be demonstrated by satisfactory performance on a comprehensive examination testing basic understanding and usage of the English language.

3. That only those students be admitted whose academic records at the various foreign institutions are superior.

<sup>1</sup> Ronald B. Thompson, "Academic Records of Foreign Students," *College and University*, XXVII (October, 1951), 31.

<sup>2</sup> P. T. Hountras, *Factors Associated with the Academic Achievement of Foreign Graduate Students at the University of Michigan*. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1955, p. 125.



# Improvement of Reading in Colleges and Secondary Schools<sup>1</sup>

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THE SUBCOMMITTEE ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF READING was appointed in 1954. The first year's work was devoted to investigating the teaching of reading, student reading proficiency, and likely avenues for improvement. The second year was given over to the preparation of the following discussion, "Improved Instruction in Reading." We hope that this discussion will be stimulating and helpful to the member schools and colleges.

A subcommittee like ours is of course interested in knowing how useful its work is. We should like very much to hear from those who read our discussion. Do you have in your school or college a program of reading instruction? Do you find this presentation helpful in planning or appraising a reading program? From your experience, can you help us see the implications and applications of reading instruction in secondary and college teaching?

Since we intend to follow up this report by making a further study of reading instruction among the North Central Association schools, it will be most helpful to hear from as many members as possible. Please write to the Subcommittee chairman.

## INTRODUCTION

The ability to read is one of the basic tools in acquiring an education; it is also one of the most important and useful results of education. This dual significance

attached to reading would seem to insure its importance as an objective of all courses and at all stages in the educational process. In practice, major responsibility for reading instruction is placed in the first six grades and teachers from that point on tend to assume that the student can read and that more reading will inevitably result in improvement. Formal attention to reading is usually found only in English courses and is often focused more on the aesthetic and critical skills than on the skills involved in reading and mastering materials typical of other disciplines. Few teachers of high school or college English have had formal training in the teaching of reading and the teacher of social science, science, or mathematics who has given attention to reading problems is a rarity.

It is of the greatest importance that reading be well taught in the first six grades, and in general it has been well taught. There are factors which might readily lead some persons to conclude otherwise. As a larger percentage of youth seek more and more education, high schools and colleges are faced with more individuals who lack the reading ability requisite for competent functioning at those levels. Even though the best students read well—perhaps better than ever before—the greater heterogeneity among students makes one more mindful of deficiencies. As the amount of knowledge in the various disciplines mounts astronomically, the content of courses covered in the lower levels tends to increase with resulting decrease in the time spent on any one idea or topic. Reading requirements may then increase either in complexity or extent with accompanying difficulty for average and poor readers. The teacher who is dis-

<sup>1</sup> A report prepared by the Subcommittee on the Improvement of Reading, of the Commission on Research and Service. The members of the Subcommittee are: Stanley Davis, University of Houston, Texas; Eona DeVere, Chicago Public Schools; Paul L. Dressel, Michigan State University, East Lansing; Gwen Horsman, Detroit Public Schools; Florence Thompson, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute; and Russell Cosper (chairman), Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.

tressed at the inability of students to master ideas through reading often turns to lecturing so as to insure coverage of the main points. In turn, this practice discourages even the more able student from reading because he finds it unnecessary. Another contributing factor is that specialization of teachers in one or two subjects from the junior high school upward leads to placing emphasis on content coverage as the important goal of each course. Pervasive skills, of which reading is one, by being everyone's responsibility, may become the responsibility of none.

In the face of such issues, the decision as to whether reading is as well taught as it could be in the first six grades is difficult. The forthright answer is that some improvement is probably possible, for there are few things done in education or elsewhere in optimum fashion. Yet any improvement will be slow to come and will not be so revolutionary as to turn out fully accomplished readers after six years. Optimal improvement in reading skills will result only as reading becomes a continuing obligation of instruction at all levels.

High school and college teachers are often reluctant to view themselves as teachers of reading, but if the development of ability to read for pleasure or for profit in an area is regarded as a major outcome of a course the neglect of reading is unjustifiable. For those who continue with advanced courses in an area the ability to read and assimilate increasingly complicated ideas is essential. For those who take only a course or two in a content area, their further contact with the area is very likely to be limited to reading about developments in it. Improvement of reading skills in each course, whether it be for the specializing or for the general education student, is clearly a major course objective. If necessary, the coverage of certain segments of factual material may have to be sacrificed to give attention to reading. The sacrifice is really only a temporary one which will in the long

run pay dividends because of increased ability for self-education. To these propositions most teachers will assent in varying degrees and with marked differences in enthusiasm. In part, these reactions stem from uncertainty as to just what a content-oriented teacher can do about reading. The statements which follow develop further these suggestions and attempt to point out specific ways in which all teachers can encourage faster improvement in reading skills.

#### APPROACHES

The realization that learning to read is a life-long process is not new, but recent concern about reading is causing high schools and colleges to take another look at this perennial problem. It is the thesis of this presentation that all secondary and college teachers should assume responsibility for improving the reading proficiency of their students.

While at present most reading instruction terminates in the sixth or seventh grade, it seems unrealistic and unfair to expect the elementary schools to do the whole job; they alone can not equip our young people with the complex of skills they need and can acquire in developing adequate reading proficiency. Reading involves seeing printed symbols, interpreting them, and making discriminative reactions. The processes of interpreting and reacting (thinking) can be developed only in the context of the reading at hand. We can not expect students to read new, more mature materials with skills acquired years ago in the elementary grades. Students will be more successful in learning to read in any subject field if they are given guidance at the appropriate time.

It is commonplace now that any group will vary widely in reading abilities. On standardized tests differences of seven or eight grades are often found within a single grade or class. This range means that unless reading materials are written expressly for the poorest readers (and of course they are not), some students will experience too much frustration in doing



their required tasks. These students need help in improving their proficiency.

Even the best readers can be helped by suitable guidance and practice. Since skill in reading is an indispensable part of learning, the often-heard argument among high school and college instructors that they do not have time to cover the assigned course content and also to help students improve their reading seems to lack validity. Without direct help in reading, only a select few will learn as effectively as they could with timely direction.

While much of the criticism directed against the reading competence of our students is ill-founded, particularly the popular attacks on elementary teaching, we can all agree that at the secondary and college levels we do not teach reading as well as we might. Reading has for some time been subjected to critical evaluation, and the conclusion seems clear that not every student achieves a reasonable competence and too many do not achieve even a minimum competence.

If we grant that a reading problem exists, the reasons for it may be summed up briefly:

1. With compulsory attendance laws, many students with poor verbal aptitude remain in high school. Since reading ability is the key to success in so much of education, deficiencies in reading become increasingly troublesome. As college enrollments swell, the same problem faces higher education though probably in less aggravated form.
2. At the secondary level and afterward most teachers do not accept responsibility for reading. Too often the elementary schools and English teachers, or in some cases psychologists, are expected to assume the whole burden. The situation is somewhat like our attitude toward writing skill: while we acknowledge that all teachers and departments should expect good writing, most of the responsibility for teaching it remains with the English department.
3. After the elementary grades too little provision is made in the curriculum for improving general reading proficiency. Even in the language arts class attention may be narrowly confined to literary appreciation.

Although in general today's students read better than preceding generations

did, we are conscious of our shortcomings. To some extent the answer is to be found in better-prepared teachers, smaller classes, more funds for reading materials. It is the purpose here, however, to indicate some of the things we can do now, under present conditions.

How can high schools and colleges continue to improve reading skill (well begun usually in the elementary grades) so that our students may achieve a reasonable competence? There are perhaps three basic approaches for group instruction:

- I. Aid each subject-matter instructor to become aware of problems in reading and of ways he can help to meet the problem in his own classroom.
- II. Allow time in the language arts program for reading along with composition, language, and literature.
- III. Provide intensive instruction with well-qualified instructors.

In addition, the poorest readers—the handicapped, those with mental quirks, victims of poor instruction and poor environment—will continue to need specialized remedial diagnosis and therapy. Although this aspect of reading improvement is important and many schools do provide competent individual coaching, the Subcommittee is concerned with developmental rather than clinical teaching.

### *The subject matter instructor*

Although the individual instructor can not spend a great deal of time on reading improvement (and perhaps many do not feel qualified in this field) there are some things he can do in his classroom; and the cumulative benefits can be most significant. He can insure that his students are ready to read the assigned material. Beyond the most obvious supplying of background information and stimulating motivation, he can look at standardized test scores and devise his own simple paragraph and vocabulary tests to estimate the chances of success in reading; then he can develop new concepts and vocabulary before the assignment. Allied

with these preliminaries, he can teach the class how to survey a textbook. A few discussions on the preface, contents, index, and purpose of the text will pay off in giving a grasp of the whole. A corollary step might well be to spend time on how to study a chapter. The well-known S-Q-3R procedure—Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review—is a practical method.<sup>1</sup>

In all classes students can be shown the desirability of flexible reading, that is, varying rate and thoroughness with the book and the purpose. Too often we read everything from escapist novels to physics texts with the same dull plodding or skimpy skimming. For most students the big problem is to induce them to speed up when speed is in order.

Students must be consistently shown how to use outside materials—how to find them, how to relate what they read to the work at hand. An end skill is how to prepare for exams. The methods employed will vary with the subject, and the subject-matter teacher is in the best position to show what is important to remember. Concurrently with these procedures, each teacher should take the responsibility for vocabulary development in his area. Any teacher can show students how to use phonetic, structural, and contextual clues in attacking new words and he can require dictionary study.

These suggestions, then, are all possible avenues in the classroom. If teachers generally would take time for these simple things, the effort would be worth while.

#### *Reading in the language arts program*

Conventionally English teachers take responsibility for oral and written composition, language, and literature. Reading, however, is likely to be narrowly confined to the interpretation of literature. Outside of spoken English, reading is probably the most used communication skill and of prime importance in learning. The inference is plain: English teaching

should include general proficiency in reading along with other forms of language use. All the suggestions made for teachers in general can well be used in the English class; in addition the English teacher has a unique opportunity to work with his colleagues in the other areas. He is in a specially favorable position to teach vocabulary, the structure of writing, the detection of slanted or biased writing, and the evaluation of reading matter.

This approach would require a curriculum readjustment in many cases, and English teachers would need to broaden considerably their reading materials. The irony of much conventional teaching is that reading, at least in the sense of general competence, is often the stepchild of the language arts program.

#### *Intensive instruction in reading*

An outgrowth of the preceding approach is to offer intensive instruction in reading in somewhat the same sense that we offer intensive instruction in writing and speaking. This attack—called the reading department approach, the reading clinic method, often simply developmental reading—is perhaps most common in colleges and in adult programs, but it is rapidly spreading among high schools. It is based squarely on the fact that with intensive instruction nearly all students improve, sometimes spectacularly. A common denominator among these programs is that instruction is given in a reading room, reading improvement center, or a reading laboratory. Many schools are using well-stocked libraries of interesting books and magazines, a plentiful supply of workbooks, and laboratory devices.

One small high school<sup>2</sup> allots two hours a week in the English curriculum to intensive laboratory instruction for the junior class. Materials include workbooks to increase sophistication in reading purpose and to provide diverse short pieces with comprehension checks; vocabulary lists;

<sup>1</sup> See Francis P. Robinson, *Effective Study* (New York, Harper & Bros., 1946).

<sup>2</sup> In West Lafayette, Indiana. Data taken from a report by Yuthas and Leer.



reading films<sup>1</sup>; pacers<sup>2</sup> for half the class, and ample library. Results in 1954-55 on the Iowa Silent Reading Test showed a median gain of 31 percentile ranks; that is, the eleventh-graders read at the 56th percentile in October and at the 87th percentile in May. This appreciable gain came after about fifty hours of intensive practice under supervision.

In college teaching the reading problem is acute. Many freshmen are abruptly forced to do much more reading, to succeed in a new atmosphere where they are treated as young, responsible adults, to work close to capacity for the first time in their lives. Here too the results of intensive instruction are promising. In a laboratory course of thirty hours at one university, using films, pacers, tachistoscopic slides, and a variety of books and workbooks, college freshmen in 1953 advanced 21 percentile ranks on the Iowa test, from the 62nd to the 83rd percentile.<sup>3</sup>

Every school ought to have as a minimum a regular program of objective testing in reading and most schools would do well to increase their resources. All the group approaches here presented have proven merit. If each subject-matter teacher would assume some of the burden, if the language arts curriculum included reading, if periodic intensive instruction were instituted to supplement regular classroom procedures, our reading problem would greatly diminish.

The following references will help those who are interested in studying further the approaches to improvement in reading.

1. Anderson, Irving H. and Dearborn, Walter F., *The Psychology of Teaching Reading*. New York, Ronald Press, 1952.
2. Bond, Guy L. and Bond, Eva, *Developmental Reading in High School*. New York, MacMillan, 1941.
3. Harris, Albert J., *How to Increase Reading Ability*. New York, Longmans-Green, 1947.

<sup>1</sup> Harvard, Iowa, and Purdue produce reading films.

<sup>2</sup> A number of pacers are available commercially: Science Research Associates, Lafayette Instrument Company, Keystone, and Audio-Visual Research produce usable devices.

<sup>3</sup> See *School and Society* 77:359-62.

4. Strang, Ruth M., McCullough, Constance M., and Traxler, Arthur E., *Problems in the Improvement of Reading*. New York, McGraw Hill, 1955.
5. National Society for the Study of Education, 47th Yearbook, Part 2, *Reading in the High School and College*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1948.
6. Simpson, Elizabeth S., *Helping High-School Students Read Better*. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1954.
7. Triggs, Frances O., *We All Teach Reading*. (Privately published by the author, 419 West Street. New York, 27, New York.)

#### THE PROBLEM OF TEACHING

There is a tendency for instructors in high schools and colleges to assume that students enter their classes with an ability to read on the various grade levels represented. Some years ago this assumption was justified to a far greater degree than it is at present. Due to compulsory attendance there are boys and girls entering high school and college today who, in years gone by, would never have aspired to such a level. Today, in our broadened democratic educational procedure, the less able students are not only privileged to experience more education, they *must* attend school until a certain age is reached. The large group of students who read *well* in high school and college read better than students have read in the history of our country. These students present as great a problem or an even greater one than the less accomplished readers if educators are concerned with the responsibility of teaching each student to the limit of his capacity. Is this group of excellent students really challenged in the present classroom? Are we spending all our time talking and writing about boys and girls, young men and young women, who have not the native ability to accomplish tasks which were designed years ago for able students? In discussing the problem of reading we must consider the full range of reading ability and not focus solely on those who read poorly.

It is no more logical to assume that all students will be able to *read* on a particular grade level in one classroom

than it is to assume that they are equally accomplished in arithmetical manipulation, or in social science understandings, or in natural science comprehensions. In their abilities to engage in sports they represent as many different levels of accomplishments as there are students in the class. We are willing to accept this discrepancy in physical abilities but we cannot quite adjust to a similar discrepancy of their mental abilities.

If students could read and interpret the printed page without the help of a trained teacher then we would no longer need teachers. The learning process presents a vertical climb and all students have a right to expect help in making that climb successfully. Every educational system can group students chronologically for social growth toward maturity. Any school system can adjust materials and courses to meet the needs of these students academically. Society says that they should be in school; educators can keep them there when groups of teachers plan thoughtfully for their academic growth.

One other problem in the teaching of reading in high schools and colleges is the woeful lack of teacher training in *methods* of teaching. Classrooms are filled with teachers possessing a wide background of knowledge in specific subject-matter fields. Teachers may spend years studying in particular areas of learning and become experts in the classroom from a *content* point of view. But the ability to help students acquire knowledge in these same areas is sometimes lacking. Students' failures in secondary education are not necessarily due to lack of the ability to read. They could be due to a lack of effective teaching. Much of our problem today would be alleviated if more teachers were trained in the fundamental laws of learning. When only the "cream of the crop" entered into secondary education from the elementary schools the need for skillful teaching was not as apparent as it is today. The students could all read and they learned in spite of us if not because of us. Today, how-

ever, with all of the children of all of the people seated in our classrooms there is a real need for expert teaching. It is often not a matter of teaching *reading*, it is a matter of *teaching*. The problem of improving reading is but a part of the broader problem of improving teaching.

In any learning process there must be a willingness and eagerness on the part of the learner to acquire knowledge. The teacher has to be a supersalesman. An enthusiastic approach to the material under consideration must be thoughtfully planned and prepared. In reading (which is the most difficult avenue to learning), the barriers which the students will meet on the printed page must be anticipated and removed before they are encountered in the reading process. Vocabularies which are unique to certain fields are new and difficult in both recognition and concept. Many familiar words with new concepts will be met in the text. Even accomplished readers falter in a new field. The most able students have a right to expect help from a teacher.

In high schools and colleges throughout the country skillful, intellectual, and understanding instructors are conducting classes in such a manner that all levels of student abilities are being considered. A thorough, rich introduction to new material is carefully planned so that the learning process which includes reading is a smooth climb. When students have an opportunity to reflect on the significance of what is read, judge its value, draw inferences from its implications, as well as experience a reaction to it, integration follows. Vocabularies found in the new reading materials have been discussed and explained in such a way that the learner actually acquires an extensive vocabulary of his own instead of stumbling over words which bear no meaning. Reading, speaking, and writing develop into arts because the student has the necessary tools for expression, i.e., vocabulary and concepts. Listening becomes an art because of an understanding of the spoken word. Thinking becomes more profound when pupils



have acquired words with which to think.

In these same classrooms teaching becomes more effective because the teacher is conducting a *guided* reading lesson. He moves around the room during the silent reading period, lending help to those for whom the printed page is more difficult. He is alert to the needs of each student, to the possibilities for growth—from the most retarded to the most accelerated among them. This teacher measures each student's progress by the student himself, not by the progress of others. Words of encouragement and commendation are a fundamental part of his teaching pattern. Students recognizing this grow in only one direction . . . UP.

Following any lesson which has involved independent reading on the part of class members is a lively discussion period, with a give and take of ideas, a comparing and contrasting of ideas, an enrichment of old concepts and a development of new. The printed page has come to life.

#### *Possibilities for improvement*

The teaching of reading on every grade level has become a matter of concern on the part of secondary teachers all over the country. In numerous educational programs students are now being helped to read better by teachers who have spent time and money in studying methods in the teaching of reading. Classes are designed to teach students of all levels of ability how to read better. Many simple, but excellent, teaching techniques are employed. Retarded readers are either grouped in special classes or are seated in the front of regular classes. In this manner teachers are better able to give individual help at the time it is needed. Poor readers are no longer ignored or lost in the shuffle. Extensive testing programs are carried out which help teachers to identify the poor, average, and accelerated readers at the beginning of a school term.

In an increasing number of cities the "standardized text" for certain subject matter areas is being supplemented by

books which meet the needs and abilities of *all* learners. These books are selected by committees of teachers who are interested in solving the problem of reading in an educational pattern which encourages learning for everyone. Students are growing academically at their individual rates of speed with no single standard of performance for all.

Learning through reading is enhanced by the use of unlimited audiovisual material, where the avenues of learning through hearing and seeing are employed to help with the reading. Students are meeting in smaller groups for discussion and study, each group with an assignment which is within the capacities of the group to fulfill. A new respect for the contributions of various group members is developed in such a way that the entire group benefits. Members of such classes are maturing as they recognize the learning process in a life situation. Such carefully planned instruction results in a deeper respect for other individuals and for the teacher. Furthermore, for those students who will become teachers an excellent pattern for instruction has been set. Students never forget a good teacher.

Another improvement which can be adopted is found in those classrooms where the "blanket assignment" is no longer given. Many years ago when only the more able students attended high schools and colleges it was quite possible to give one assignment to an entire class. Today many teachers who realize the folly of such a procedure in classes with a wide variation in abilities, give assignments to groups, or even individuals, which are possible to carry out and which challenge the learner. Certainly the retarded reader cannot be asked to accomplish a task which the accelerated reader must stretch to fulfill. There is no stigma attached to any student in a situation where the teacher is sincere and sympathetic in employing techniques which will promote growth on the part of every individual.

Perhaps the greatest improvement in ability to read is found in the classrooms where teachers prepare conscientiously for classroom instruction. More and more teachers are becoming increasingly aware of the *need to plan* for the students in classes today. Through such planning the teacher himself becomes more competent in the ability to interpret a printed page and his methodology in teaching is more clearly defined and executed. Educational changes occur slowly but there is growing evidence to prove that the reaching of reading is fast becoming a "must" in all classrooms. The fact that this phase of instruction has always been needed and always will be needed is one which cannot be disputed.

#### CLASSROOM PROCEDURES

Accepting the premise of these presentations on the improvement of reading in secondary schools and colleges, that the communication of ideas for profit and pleasure is the primary purpose of the reading program, one must concede the possibility that those approaches to problems to reading which emphasize the realm of ideas are the techniques and procedures most likely to prove effective. Perhaps many of the reading difficulties encountered by students stem from the fact that both learner and teacher frequently lose sight of this basic concept. School folk generally quite possibly fail also to sense the important truth that it is through ideas that all the language arts, fundamental to every area of learning, take on meaning. It is the purpose of this final section to suggest ideas as an open sesame of reading.

Because language is symbolic, it is difficult to master. Adults who are academic by inclination and training tend to forget that this world of the abstract, the language world, may escape entirely young minds which are offered a language diet as though it were as tangible as breakfast porridge. Ideas are abstract, and language *is* ideas.

An interesting experiment is to ask a

class how the group could think in terms of *ocean* if none had ever seen such a large body of water; if none knew the word which symbolizes ocean; none could use graphic materials to depict it; none could hear circumlocutory descriptions of it. Confronted with this question, even advanced students frequently reveal by the expressions on their faces that never before had they appreciated the symbolic power of language over thought and communication. From so small a beginning may be launched an excursion in vocabulary mastery that will fascinate the able members of a secondary-school class and will arouse the interest of the slowest learners. Time and again, however, the students must be reminded, through the citing of numerous illustrations, that words and word-groups are merely symbols, that the mind with its magic powers of imagination and reflection is the really important instrument. Students never fail to be impressed, too, by the realization that each new symbol mastered opens new horizons of experience. Young people today like to be considered sophisticated, to be recognized as sufficiently mature to "have been places and done things." They are quick to appreciate, once it has been made apparent to them, the value of vocabulary in the process of expanding experiences, widening contacts, exploring new worlds.

Much has been said and written about the importance of word-study in the language arts, particularly in reading; not enough has actually been done to further learning in this area. Vocabulary deficiency remains the factor accountable for a great share of the failure on the part of secondary school and college students to practice effectively the language arts. Inability to recognize and to interpret language symbols is a serious deterrent to progress in reading. Current debates over proper methods to be used in word-mastery tend to consider word-recognition apart from word-interpretation. Both are not only important, they are inseparable; nevertheless, the first is merely a



means to the second. Vocabulary as ideas is the final objective.

Language being symbolic, anything tangible resulting from language study must stem from the abstract, from ideas. In mastering language on all but the most elementary level, students must often reverse the learning process, proceeding from the abstract to the concrete, rather than progressing from the concrete to the abstract. This is particularly true in reading, because the printed page deals with ideas that must be conveyed without the writer's being present to answer questions.

For that reason, if for no other, it would seem wise to begin a reading program with ideas. Whether the program be a part of the English class or of some other subject area, on the high school or on the college level, geared for advanced or retarded learners, a discussion of ideas relevant to difficult reading material on the agenda would appear to be first in order. This procedure does not signify that students should not be encouraged to read spontaneously and without coaching for entertainment and for new ideas. Independent reading, the ultimate goal of all reading instruction in the schools, must of course be concurrent with guided reading; the techniques suggested here are merely some of the ways that may help students master the tools which will aid them throughout life to achieve self-direction in reading.

An illustration of guided reading in an extended unit of work is provided by a social-studies class which was about to pursue the subject of the economic clashes underlying modern wars. One writer, observed the teacher to the class, maintains that the United States will always be concerned if her trade on either of the major oceans, the Atlantic or the Pacific, is threatened. "Do you think this is true?" asked the teacher.

The ensuing class discussion was lively. However, trained by their instructor in habits of straight thinking, the students soon concluded that their arguments needed the bolstering of more evidence

than they had at their command. Committees were formed to do some library-research to determine what data could be uncovered and what authoritative pronouncements were available.

Despite his realization that some of the students would be reading "over their heads" in the furtherance of this project, the teacher felt confident that the poorest reader, armed with at least some foreknowledge of what to look for in the books and pamphlets at his disposal, would be able to garner a number of new ideas. If guidance of this kind could often be a part of his reading program, the reluctant reader would soon become the eager reader; and eagerness is the first step toward success.

When this particular class reconvened to consider the problem as a whole, the committees brought with them scores of books, magazines, and pamphlets. Excerpts were read aloud to illustrate points; maps, charts, and diagrams were interpreted in light of the major thesis; statistical data were outlined and evaluated; illustrative slides were projected on a screen; literary selections were reviewed; recordings were presented with appropriate commentary. By the time the reports had been completed, the teacher had the satisfaction of knowing that every student had successfully read for specific information and that a rewarding number of committee members had read widely in the general field of economic conflict and in the specific area of modern war as it has directly involved the United States.

Because the social-studies teacher had been coordinating the work of his class with the work of an English class interested in utilizing straight thinking as a springboard to all learning, those students common to both classes wrote English themes presenting their conclusions as a result of the social-studies research. Read aloud to the English class, these themes served as stimuli for a class discussion of the ethical problems involved in economic strife and eventually led to wide reading in literature and in magazines and news-

papers. When the history and the English classes met for a joint program as a culmination to this excursion in ideas, the students indicated growth in the ability to speak convincingly, to read smoothly, and to listen critically. They quoted with some authority from works that ranged from the wisdom of the ancient Greek philosophers to the wisecracks of television comedians. But above all, they showed evidence of improvement in thinking power, in the mastery of thought, of which language is both tool and component.

Ideas must be the starting point for the overcoming of reading difficulties, no matter how minor or technical the latter may be, no matter what the subject area. In teaching students how to survey a textbook, to adapt reading rate to the material at hand, to use reference aids, to develop specific vocabulary, to master the structure of writing, to evaluate data and arguments, to examine critically publications, to cultivate appreciation of the worth in literature, to prepare for examinations—all these phases of a developmental reading program must begin and end with emphasis on ideas.

Finally to be effective, instruction in reading must be both general and specific, both an integrated part of other learning activities and an isolated unit for intensive work. This dichotomy in procedure is evidenced when, for instance, the instructor in mathematics devotes a series of class sessions to the study of the vocabulary involved in a given unit of work and the reading skills required in inter-

preting the problems of the unit; when he later proceeds to guide the students to mastery of the unit as a project in mathematics per se, reading skills then serve only as means to a mathematical goal. Even in the language arts class, reading skills need the systematic attention made possible only through a carefully-planned series of specific lessons in developmental reading; yet these skills become only appropriate and necessary tools when various units in literature and the other language arts are the subject of study.

Thus far in this discussion, little has been said but much has been implied about the improvement of reading through growth in the power to think straight. Thinking is so obviously involved in all the language arts that the teacher could not ignore its implications even if he would. Reading to search for data in support of ideas; reading to evaluate points of view, to test the validity of arguments and the soundness of conclusions can provide the basis for a large part of the reading program. A program so conceived and so dedicated is likely to need no further motivation because young people today are keenly interested in current economic, social, political, and ideological problems; they are eager to discover anchors for their own personal reasoning and behavior; they are quick to apply elementary lessons in logic to an analysis of what they read and hear. Once the student has cultivated the habit of this kind of analysis, he is on the road to proficiency in all the language arts, particularly in reading.

NOTE: At a nominal cost, reprints of this report may be purchased for faculty distribution from the Secretary of the Association, Charles W. Boardman, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.



# Trends in Secondary Schools

## SUMMARY OF STATISTICAL INFORMATION FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS ACCREDITED BY THE ASSOCIATION FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR 1955-56

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DATA presented in the tables which follow are compiled from the Annual Report on Regulations (Form A) as submitted by member schools and summarized for the states. They depict conditions as they existed at the close of the first month of school. They indicate trends in the more significant items included in that report. For each item returns are given for the nineteen states and the thirty-two Dependents' Schools. For purposes of comparison, the totals for the preceding five years are presented at the bottom of each table, except in a few instances where comparable figures are not available. The data have been compiled for schools in four categories of size—fewer than 200 pupils; 200-499; 500-999; and more than 1,000. Due to limitations of space, these separate tabulations are not included in this published report. Only the totals for all categories are shown.

In the fall of 1955, the number of member schools accredited by the Association rose to 3,328, an increase of sixty since the previous year. Thirty-two were "Dependents' Schools" maintained by the Armed Services for the dependents of military and civilian personnel in occupied countries. It will be noted that the four-year high schools showed the largest numerical increase. In 1954-55, there were 1,911 schools of this type and in 1955-56, there were 1,959, an increase in that category of forty-eight. The six-year high schools lost thirteen; the three-year high schools increased by twenty-four, and schools organized on other plans, for the most part two-year and five-year schools, showed a gain of one. The net gain was sixty schools.

The pupil enrollment increased by 100,253 to a total of 1,849,964. This is the largest number ever reported. When enrollment in the separate grades is examined, we find an increase in each grade from seven through twelve. The average for North Central high schools continued to climb. The figure was 556, a gain of twenty-one over 1955.

The number of pupils graduated in 1955 (the report for 1955-56 gives the graduates of the previous year) was 353,314, an increase of 20,303. The number of post-graduates increased by 571 over the previous year.

It appears that there was steady, if gradual, progress in the upgrading of library personnel. The number of librarians with no library training fell from 328 to 309, a decrease of nineteen. Those with from 1-5 semester hours of training rose from 216 to 226, an increase of ten, and those with from 6-15 semester hours in library science increased from 887 to 918, a gain of thirty-one. At the same time, the number of librarians with from 16-23 semester hours of training increased from 590 to 605, a gain of fifteen, and those who had twenty-four semester hours or more increased from 1,753 to 1,776, an increase of twenty-three. Thus, we find that we have twenty-nine fewer librarians with less than six semester hours of training and sixty-nine more librarians with six or more semester hours of training. The number of full-time librarians increased by seventy-eight over the preceding year. We now have 2,381, in a total of 3,834 librarians, who are sufficiently well trained to qualify. On the other hand, we still have 309 individuals acting as librarians with

no training at all and another 1,144 with insufficient training to insure effective service.

Salaries of teachers continued to increase. The number receiving less than \$3,200 per year decreased from 7,309 to 5,762. At the same time the number receiving \$6,000 or more increased from 7,064 to 10,066. The number of high school principals receiving a salary of \$6,000 or above, increased from 1,023 to 1,278, and the number of superintendents receiving a salary of \$6,000 or above, increased from 1,152 to 1,817.

The teacher load, as reflected in the pupil-teacher ratio, remained relatively

constant. In 1956 only thirty-two schools of the 3,328 reporting showed a pupil-teacher ratio of more than thirty. Violations of the regulation pertaining to pupil-teacher ratio was found in nine of the nineteen states.

The teacher shortage is reflected in the data on new teachers. The number without a bachelor's degree continued to be negligible, but increased from 246 to 310. The number short in professional training increased from 299 to 455, and the number with inadequate preparation in a teaching field increased from 429 to 760. There were 18,694 teachers new to their positions during this past year.



## SUMMARY OF THE 1955-56 ANNUAL REPORTS OF ALL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

States	Number of Schools		School Organization					Enrollments in Grade 7 through Post-Graduate Work											
			Years Included					Grade 7			Grade 8			Grade 9			Grade 10		
	Public	Private	Total	Six	Four	Three	Other	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1. Arizona	51	0	51	4	44	3	0	211	172	383	162	165	327	5,197	4,936	10,133	5,090	4,776	9,866
2. Arkansas	107	3	110	64	27	17	2	2,554	2,389	4,943	2,461	2,375	4,836	3,470	3,628	7,098	5,640	5,945	11,585
3. Colorado	93	11	104	10	73	21	0	208	214	422	177	171	348	3,799	3,641	7,350	7,892	7,652	15,544
4. Illinois	408	109	517	14	465	27	11	401	380	781	481	486	967	47,276	46,831	94,107	45,434	45,758	91,192
5. Indiana	175	9	184	85	78	12	9	4,628	4,505	9,133	4,923	4,788	9,711	17,387	16,660	34,047	16,903	16,587	33,490
6. Iowa	156	17	173	6	124	37	6	387	353	740	406	384	790	5,850	5,829	11,679	10,341	10,165	20,506
7. Kansas	196	18	214	31	151	29	3	1,152	1,124	2,276	1,203	1,126	2,329	6,131	6,045	12,176	9,730	9,599	19,329
8. Michigan	239	28	267	67	131	53	16	3,921	3,669	7,590	4,644	4,341	8,985	21,056	21,741	42,797	32,118	33,197	65,315
9. Minnesota	99	23	122	14	27	81	0	546	556	1,102	612	566	1,178	2,863	2,852	5,715	11,159	11,301	22,460
10. Missouri	137	46	183	27	135	18	3	1,188	1,130	2,318	1,347	1,301	2,648	11,771	12,048	23,819	13,475	13,495	26,970
11. Nebraska	143	12	155	0	135	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4,745	4,598	9,343	6,181	6,236	12,417
12. New Mexico	49	2	51	12	26	13	0	388	419	807	366	364	730	2,333	2,183	4,516	4,540	4,249	8,789
13. North Dakota	61	4	65	16	38	5	6	424	342	766	418	408	826	1,775	1,824	3,599	2,064	2,258	4,322
14. Ohio	446	44	490	216	131	69	24	10,742	10,199	20,941	11,764	11,583	23,347	29,459	29,423	58,882	38,528	39,712	78,240
15. Oklahoma	152	2	154	0	58	96	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2,302	2,067	4,369	10,036	9,301	19,337
16. South Dakota	80	1	81	4	70	7	0	78	68	146	72	55	127	2,320	2,259	4,579	2,668	2,756	5,424
17. West Virginia	177	2	179	114	37	25	3	4,995	4,608	9,603	4,859	4,668	9,527	8,883	8,678	17,561	11,637	12,202	23,839
18. Wisconsin	135	28	163	15	117	29	2	591	565	1,156	578	486	1,064	10,611	10,666	21,277	15,349	15,833	31,182
19. Wyoming	32	1	33	12	20	1	0	415	400	815	371	353	724	1,606	1,525	3,131	1,691	1,675	3,366
Dependents' Schools	32	0	32	20	22	0	0	688	650	1,338	440	467	907	958	977	1,935	755	755	1,510
Totals (1956)	2,968	360	3,328	721	1,959	563	85	33,517	31,743	65,260	35,284	34,087	69,371	189,752	188,411	378,163	251,331	253,452	504,783
1955	2,914	354	3,268	734	1,911	539	84	33,018	31,413	64,431	33,555	32,166	65,721	177,771	175,628	353,399	239,064	239,642	478,706
1954	2,807	403	3,210	731	1,853	579	107	31,520	29,578	61,107	32,273	31,426	63,699	169,547	167,641	337,188	230,250	236,220	466,470
1953	2,838	350	3,188	730	1,860	490	108	29,525	27,980	57,505	30,412	29,157	59,569	169,071	168,593	337,574	217,394	221,167	438,471
1952	2,756	393	3,149	699	1,886	483	81	27,215	25,526	52,741	28,322	28,025	56,347	160,026	161,323	321,349	209,177	215,268	424,445
1951	2,748	339	3,087	647	1,822	479	138	23,930	23,831	47,761	25,289	24,614	49,993	151,961	156,165	308,126	201,042	208,894	409,936





States	Graduates Completing Regular Requirements for Graduation			Graduates Receiving Certificates of Attendance Instead of Diplomas			Total Graduates in 1955			Length of School Year in Days Taught in 1954-55							Summer School in 1955	
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Less than 172	172-173	174-175	176-177	178-179	180 or more	Number Operated	Number Enrolled	
1. Arizona	3,158	3,080	6,238	1	0	1	3,159	3,080	6,239	1	28	11	9	2	0	5	1,102	
2. Arkansas	3,666	4,095	7,761	52	36	88	3,718	4,131	7,849	0	39	44	21	4	2	34	1,814	
3. Colorado	4,894	5,126	10,020	6	4	10	4,900	5,130	10,030	1	10	12	22	13	46	16	2,164	
4. Illinois	31,165	33,319	64,484	4	3	7	31,169	33,322	64,491	8	6	25	94	153	231	81	20,187	
5. Indiana	11,175	11,421	22,596	7	7	14	11,182	11,428	22,610	2	9	25	85	19	44	42	11,145	
6. Iowa	7,513	7,881	15,394	14	6	20	7,527	7,887	15,414	1	1	6	6	48	111	17	2,513	
7. Kansas	7,380	7,149	14,529	7	0	7	7,387	7,149	14,536	0	9	48	79	39	39	13	1,760	
8. Michigan	19,573	22,918	42,491	493	33	526	20,066	22,951	43,017	2	7	13	35	39	171	67	18,720	
9. Minnesota	7,991	8,757	16,748	17	2	19	8,008	8,759	16,767	2	68	10	19	9	14	21	1,694	
10. Missouri	9,417	10,061	19,478	7	6	13	9,424	10,067	19,491	0	7	25	42	21	88	37	3,870	
11. Nebraska	4,791	4,798	9,589	3	5	8	4,794	4,803	9,597	1	3	33	77	24	17	4	1,492	
12. New Mexico	2,428	2,451	4,879	0	1	1	2,428	2,452	4,880	0	22	9	3	1	16	10	1,774	
13. North Dakota	1,591	1,732	3,323	1	0	1	1,592	1,732	3,324	1	24	21	14	3	2	4	221	
14. Ohio	25,254	27,756	53,010	10	15	25	25,264	27,771	53,035	16	60	154	107	27	126	63	15,270	
15. Oklahoma	6,867	6,716	13,583	3	0	3	6,870	6,716	13,586	0	0	47	72	17	18	14	1,565	
16. South Dakota	1,963	2,155	4,118	9	3	12	1,972	2,158	4,130	0	0	6	22	7	46	5	255	
17. West Virginia	7,411	8,603	16,014	0	2	2	7,411	8,605	16,016	17	64	74	23	0	1	18	2,420	
18. Wisconsin	11,827	12,922	24,749	422	22	444	12,249	13,944	25,193	0	17	41	27	16	62	14	3,025	
19. Wyoming	1,204	1,188	2,392	1	1	2	1,205	1,189	2,394	0	7	8	13	1	4	2	170	
Dependents' Schools	342	373	715	0	0	0	342	373	715	0	14	3	1	11	3	32	586	
Totals (1956)	169,610	182,501	352,111	1,057	146	1,203	170,667	182,647	353,314	52	395	615	771	454	1,041	499	91,747	
1955	*	*	*	*	*	*	160,324	172,687	333,011	80	361	634	765	424	963	*	*	
1954	*	*	*	*	*	*	155,243	170,270	325,513	44	286	552	813	400	1,115	*	*	
1953	*	*	*	*	*	*	148,530	163,617	312,147	100	381	511	748	380	1,067	*	*	
1952	*	*	*	*	*	*	145,609	159,008	304,617	219	388	464	700	334	1,043	*	*	
1951	*	*	*	*	*	*	153,420	164,138	317,558	50	324	537	742	348	1,084	*	*	

\* Information not compiled in previous years.

States	School Library													
	Librarians		Preparations of Librarians Hours in Library Science					Per Pupil Expenditure						
	Full Time	Part Time	None	1-5	6-15	16-23	24 or more	Less than \$0.50	\$0.50 to 0.99	\$1.00 to 1.49	\$1.50 to 1.99	\$2.00 to 2.49	\$2.50 to 2.99	\$3.00 or more
1. Arizona	37	20	1	2	14	9	31	0	1	5	16	8	7	14
2. Arkansas	68	48	7	3	30	27	49	1	7	40	32	15	9	14
3. Colorado	53	61	15	5	37	21	36	0	4	27	12	13	12	36
4. Illinois	346	263	16	15	131	102	345	1	51	86	79	85	58	157
5. Indiana	119	109	26	1	4	36	161	0	15	55	47	33	14	20
6. Iowa	75	123	38	14	45	43	58	19	5	45	53	17	8	26
7. Kansas	104	132	12	5	100	34	85	0	8	19	15	28	37	107
8. Michigan	229	101	18	6	51	55	200	2	35	57	34	39	33	67
9. Minnesota	117	39	15	2	19	23	97	0	5	15	24	21	15	42
10. Missouri	136	77	25	4	46	36	102	0	18	41	42	26	10	46
11. Nebraska	47	119	6	18	90	17	35	0	2	18	23	27	26	59
12. New Mexico	34	23	5	2	12	9	29	0	3	9	11	9	7	12
13. North Dakota	14	54	4	6	34	12	12	0	1	12	17	11	7	17
14. Ohio	305	297	76	99	96	57	274	3	75	156	92	67	21	76
15. Oklahoma	51	103	8	6	54	34	52	0	10	37	26	25	6	50
16. South Dakota	12	82	13	12	44	13	12	0	0	8	9	22	15	27
17. West Virginia	118	72	18	14	47	33	78	14	40	93	16	7	4	5
18. Wisconsin	118	59	2	5	40	31	99	0	7	20	47	41	19	29
19. Wyoming	11	25	1	5	14	10	6	0	0	5	6	5	4	13
Dependents' Schools	14	19	3	2	10	3	15	1	0	0	0	0	2	29
Totals (1956)	2,008	1,826	309	226	918	605	1,776	41	287	748	601	499	314	838
1955	1,930	1,880	328	216	887	590	1,753	8	290	767	579	511	311	793
1954	1,789	1,801	325	259	901	542	1,517	21	314	764	654	472	264	719
1953	1,840	1,867	376	276	972	495	1,501	29	370	704	597	457	270	669
1952	1,771	1,909	522	337	1,021	459	1,367	27	385	814	603	431	271	617
1951	2,388	1,752	604	447	984	437	1,243	39	384	890	604	411	259	486



States	Number of Schools with Various Pupil-Teacher Ratios										Length of Class Period		New to School		Preparation of New Members					Inade-quate Prepara-tion in Ed. Teaching Field		
	Less than 14.1	14.1 to 16.0	16.1 to 18.0	18.1 to 20.0	20.1 to 22.0	22.1 to 24.0	24.1 to 26.1	26.1 to 28.0	28.1 to 30.0	30.1 or More	(Long) 55 Min. or More	(Short) 40-54 Min. and Short	Men	Women	Total	Ph.D.	M.A.	Bache-lor	No Degree in Ed.	Less than 15 hrs. in Ed. Teaching		
1. Arizona	2	6	6	9	16	9	2	1	0	0	37	7	285	166	451	0	200	226	25	7	22	
2. Arkansas	2	3	9	13	19	19	20	16	7	2	46	26	38	288	551	1	106	409	35	57	64	
3. Colorado	16	21	15	14	17	13	3	2	1	1	57	14	33	359	287	646	3	182	449	12	15	56
4. Illinois	102	56	66	75	84	76	34	12	10	2	143	247	127	1,584	1,506	3,090	37	1,086	1,907	60	80	119
5. Indiana	10	1	16	16	33	41	38	20	7	2	156	17	11	606	461	1,067	7	309	747	4	25	62
6. Iowa	32	9	42	33	29	23	4	1	0	0	96	25	52	558	369	927	8	202	709	8	6	28
7. Kansas	72	44	30	23	21	9	10	3	2	0	148	9	57	549	408	957	1	238	717	1	3	21
8. Michigan	7	7	19	28	53	61	56	21	9	6	158	53	56	1,050	905	1,955	13	621	1,304	17	41	78
9. Minnesota	19	5	17	19	22	18	15	6	1	0	107	7	8	372	318	690	5	146	539	0	11	26
10. Missouri	23	19	22	22	36	29	19	10	2	1	93	38	52	560	528	1,088	3	314	739	32	42	43
11. Nebraska	35	36	26	25	18	8	2	3	1	1	78	7	70	389	284	673	6	156	502	9	4	28
12. New Mexico	6	5	8	13	10	5	2	1	1	0	40	3	8	196	148	344	2	113	223	6	15	22
13. North Dakota	3	7	12	10	14	11	5	3	0	0	18	12	35	137	92	229	1	37	187	4	9	20
14. Ohio	11	15	30	49	104	103	94	52	24	8	102	351	37	1,477	1,124	2,601	16	714	1,833	38	58	75
15. Oklahoma	23	13	20	22	28	28	13	7	0	0	136	1	17	388	306	694	5	221	464	4	14	38
16. South Dakota	17	12	25	16	6	3	2	0	0	0	33	15	33	161	130	291	0	49	233	9	0	0
17. West Virginia	4	7	4	11	20	24	45	35	20	9	170	7	2	394	452	846	1	188	623	34	43	39
18. Wisconsin	13	7	4	27	41	47	15	6	3	0	81	63	19	514	519	1,033	9	230	784	10	12	9
19. Wyoming	7	5	6	8	2	3	2	0	0	0	22	2	9	122	89	211	3	53	153	2	6	9
Dependents' Schools	19	3	4	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	13	5	14	167	183	350	7	158	185	0	7	1
Totals (1956)	423	281	381	437	574	531	381	199	89	32	1,734	900	685	10,131	8,563	18,694	128	5,323	12,033	310	455	760
1955	431	314	330	461	527	506	373	202	96	26	*	*	*	9,108	7,886	16,994	106	4,708	11,843	246	299	429
1954	402	288	368	446	536	494	387	186	84	22	*	*	*	8,658	7,572	16,230	95	4,391	11,451	230	286	469
1953	414	294	366	465	520	517	322	198	66	26	*	*	*	8,277	7,184	15,461	78	4,053	11,119	218	184	356
1952	396	315	384	464	525	446	339	188	69	21	*	*	*	6,479	5,424	11,903	68	3,549	10,206	207	193	535
1951	450	261	353	493	514	473	304	140	74	23	*	*	*	6,593	5,867	12,460	96	6,149	10,714	444	211	369

\* Information not compiled in previous years.

States	Salaries of Superintendents (dollars)																Salaries of Principals (dollars)																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																
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\* Salaries not recorded under above distribution.



States	Salaries of Full Time Male Staff Members														Total
	None	Less than \$2,000	\$2,000 to 2,399	\$2,400 to 2,799	\$2,800 to 3,199	\$3,200 to 3,599	\$3,600 to 3,999	\$4,000 to 4,399	\$4,400 to 4,799	\$4,800 to 5,199	\$5,200 to 5,599	\$5,600 to 5,999	\$6,000 or More		
1. Arizona	0	0	0	0	0	15	80	180	178	161	137	117	144	1,012	
2. Arkansas	0	7	85	126	135	115	146	67	25	9	4	1	1	721	
3. Colorado	24	1	0	1	49	177	201	268	172	86	72	44	89	1,274	
4. Illinois	486	154	45	4	79	311	895	953	890	818	784	528	1,734	7,681	
5. Indiana	25	0	0	0	11	99	331	452	502	472	427	430	516	3,265	
6. Iowa	18	33	0	5	18	91	306	535	356	356	217	121	70	2,126	
7. Kansas	23	1	7	11	12	169	464	551	490	227	110	54	25	2,144	
8. Michigan	30	0	1	1	4	96	456	838	720	522	522	523	1,283	5,274	
9. Minnesota	52	5	2	2	13	66	104	239	330	274	352	322	205	2,056	
10. Missouri	188	3	5	8	134	271	384	346	215	139	127	177	133	2,130	
11. Nebraska	18	4	1	1	5	126	317	312	204	79	62	51	2	1,182	
12. New Mexico	0	1	0	0	3	23	108	140	171	124	83	61	45	759	
13. North Dakota	4	4	1	0	1	31	123	113	69	65	37	8	1	457	
14. Ohio	188	17	4	4	86	477	945	1,252	1,074	880	726	757	664	7,074	
15. Oklahoma	10	2	9	37	104	204	356	295	230	190	153	56	25	1,671	
16. South Dakota	0	0	3	6	11	73	174	160	94	55	16	4	0	596	
17. West Virginia	1	14	28	222	334	428	302	143	85	59	6	4	6	1,632	
18. Wisconsin	105	18	2	1	3	148	361	410	401	356	338	329	310	2,782	
19. Wyoming	0	0	0	0	1	23	77	108	75	52	39	10	9	404	
Dependents' Schools	0	11	6	0	0	0	4	5	149	25	12	3	11	226	
Totals (1956)	1,172	275	199	429	1,003	2,943	6,314	7,329	6,548	5,157	4,224	3,600	5,273	44,466	
1955	1,135	192	141	526	1,388	4,398	6,588	6,795	5,545	4,283	3,494	2,877	3,602	40,964	
1954	1,052	241	138	628	2,181	5,686	6,651	6,081	4,785	3,791	3,236	3,013	1,471	38,954	
1953	1,096	288	185	835	3,567	6,406	6,082	5,560	4,387	3,567	2,562	2,140	654	37,329	

States	Salaries of Full Time Female Staff Members														Total
	None	Less than \$2,000	\$2,000 to 2,399	\$2,400 to 2,799	\$2,800 to 3,199	\$3,200 to 3,599	\$3,600 to 3,999	\$4,000 to 4,399	\$4,400 to 4,799	\$4,800 to 5,199	\$5,200 to 5,599	\$5,600 to 5,999	\$6,000 or more		
1. Arizona	0	0	0	0	0	19	80	91	80	114	74	66	86	610	
2. Arkansas	29	27	367	357	201	96	75	1	2	0	0	0	0	1,155	
3. Colorado	79	29	2	4	71	216	204	143	107	50	43	55	60	1,063	
4. Illinois	1,040	125	42	39	166	603	1,094	690	633	564	593	399	2,095	8,083	
5. Indiana	21	4	0	2	21	152	371	352	330	327	348	387	355	2,670	
6. Iowa	100	17	6	7	15	223	436	298	236	106	90	55	60	1,649	
7. Kansas	76	42	15	1	93	402	504	204	107	32	76	9	0	1,651	
8. Michigan	235	29	5	3	12	158	525	564	534	402	333	398	1,134	4,332	
9. Minnesota	127	53	8	15	21	135	174	171	158	164	244	349	99	1,718	
10. Missouri	218	62	12	64	374	462	266	190	166	78	114	221	246	2,473	
11. Nebraska	60	12	7	9	43	331	273	102	34	31	91	58	0	1,051	
12. New Mexico	6	0	6	2	1	43	99	97	100	88	49	31	30	552	
13. North Dakota	23	4	0	3	9	69	113	50	29	25	2	1	0	328	
14. Ohio	330	30	11	16	194	763	930	779	652	475	469	809	447	5,905	
15. Oklahoma	12	1	2	75	135	414	604	206	159	92	74	3	0	1,777	
16. South Dakota	14	1	1	4	14	104	138	57	38	23	4	0	0	398	
17. West Virginia	1	12	58	359	497	663	412	82	22	13	1	0	0	2,120	
18. Wisconsin	196	167	17	3	32	353	305	245	196	129	261	229	169	2,302	
19. Wyoming	9	0	1	0	0	36	79	68	36	33	20	0	0	282	
Dependents' Schools	0	12	6	0	1	1	4	9	161	37	20	6	12	269	
Totals (1956)	2,1576	627	566	963	1,900	5,243	6,686	4,489	3,780	2,783	2,906	3,076	4,703	40,388	
1955	2,623	547	473	1,138	2,804	6,684	5,426	3,780	3,025	2,678	2,600	2,761	3,462	38,001	
1954	2,568	602	594	1,540	4,140	6,915	4,787	3,534	2,893	2,616	2,921	3,779	732	37,621	
1953	2,275	832	693	2,047	6,233	6,129	4,313	3,389	2,850	2,960	2,441	2,844	286	37,202	



R. NELSON SNIDER, *Treasurer, South Side High School, Fort Wayne, Indiana*

# Treasurer's Report for the Fiscal Year

July 1, 1955-June 30, 1956

THE TREASURER submits the following audit of his accounts for the fiscal year, July 1, 1955 to June 30, 1956, as reported by Koeneman, Borger, Krouse & Dinius, Certified Public Accountants of Fort Wayne, Indiana. During the incumbency of the present treasurer this firm has been retained by the North Central Association to maintain a perpetual audit of the records maintained at the treasurer's office. The following report is dated June 30, 1956.

In keeping with sound business practice, the Association carries a \$40,000 bond for the treasurer and another of \$10,000 for his secretary.

## INDEX

### AUDITOR'S REPORT

#### *Report Letter:*

Scope of Examination  
Comments on Balance Sheet  
Comments on Activities

Comparative Balance Sheet, June 30, 1956 and June 30, 1955.....	<i>Exhibit</i> "A"
Statement of Changes in Fund Balances for the years ended June 30, 1956 and June 30, 1955.....	"B"
Statement of Income and Expenses—General Fund for the years ended June 30, 1956 and June 30, 1955.....	<i>Schedule</i> "B-1"
Statement of Expense for the years ended June 30, 1956 and June 30, 1955.....	"B-2"

August 8, 1956

Mr. R. Nelson Snider, Treasurer  
North Central Association of Colleges  
and Secondary Schools  
Fort Wayne, Indiana

### SCOPE OF EXAMINATION

Our examination was confined to an audit of the cash receipts and disbursements of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as recorded by the Treasurer for the year ended June 30, 1956. In addition to working funds shown, the Association is said to own certain unrecorded other assets consisting principally of office equipment at various offices. No attempt was made to determine the amount or value of this equipment.

In our opinion, subject to the representations of the secretaries of the revolving funds as to balances controlled by them, the accompanying balance sheet and statement of changes in fund balances present fairly the financial position of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as at June 30, 1956, and the results of its financial activities for the year then ended in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles applied on a basis consistent with that of the preceding year.

KOENEMAN, BORGER, KROUSE & DINIUS  
*Certified Public Accountants*

### COMMENTS ON BALANCE SHEET

*Cash on deposit*—\$74,299.78 The cash on deposit was verified directly with the depositories as at June 30, 1956, and the amounts reported to us were reconciled with the following balances:

*Checking Accounts:*

The Peoples Trust and Savings Company, Fort Wayne, Indiana.....	\$10,963.20	
Lincoln National Bank and Trust Company, Fort Wayne, Indiana.....	\$12,792.95	
Continental Illinois National Bank and Trust Company, Chicago, Illinois..	5,000.00	\$28,756.15

*Savings Accounts:*

The Peoples Trust and Savings Company, Fort Wayne, Indiana.....	\$20,100.00	
Lincoln National Bank and Trust Company, Fort Wayne, Indiana.....	20,100.00	
South Holland Trust and Savings Bank, South Holland, Illinois.....	5,343.63	45,543.63
		<u>\$74,299.78</u>

Copies of the official receipts for cash received by the Treasurer were traced to the cash records and to the record of deposits in the banks. The returned paid checks were inspected along with the vouchers authorizing cash disbursements.

The cash on deposit includes amounts belonging to the following funds:

Liberal Arts and Education Study.....	\$10,635.51
Institutions for Teachers' Education.....	9,300.00
Ford Foundation International Relations Study.....	11,830.92
General Fund.....	42,533.35
	<u>\$74,299.78</u>

*Revolving funds with Secretaries of Commissions—\$975.93*

The balances in the revolving funds held by the Secretaries of Commissions and the QUARTERLY office were verified by examining their reports as of June 30, 1956, as made to the Treasurer of the Association. Disbursements from the revolving funds are reported periodically by the Secretaries in charge of the funds. The funds are reimbursed by the Treasurer in accordance with the reports submitted.

The following amounts were reported as of June 30, 1956:

Dr. Charles W. Boardman, Secretary North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.....	\$370.28
Mr. Norman Burns, Secretary Commission on Colleges and Universities.....	187.12
Mr. A. J. Gibson, Secretary Commission on Secondary Schools.....	101.53
Dr. Harlan C. Kock, Managing Editor North Central Association Quarterly.....	317.00
	<u>\$975.93</u>

*Liberal Arts Education Study—\$10,635.51*

Exhibit "B" presents the changes to the Liberal Arts Education Study Fund for the year ended June 30, 1956. The amounts paid out exceeded the income by \$1,541.63 for the year. The fund balance at June 30, 1956 of \$10,635.51 is represented by cash on deposit.

*Institutions for Teachers' Education—\$9,300.00*

The cash received for Institutions for Teachers' Education is carried as a fund balance and accordingly is not included in the income of the general fund. During the year ended June 30, 1956, the cash collections exceeded the expenditures by \$1,430.00 making the fund balance \$9,300.00 at June 30, 1956.

*General Fund—\$42,503.35*

The general fund balance was increased \$9,640.41 for the year ended June 30, 1956. This amount represents the excess of the income over the expenses as detailed in Schedule "B-I."

The general fund balance at June 30, 1956, consists of the following amounts:

Cash on deposit.....	\$42,533.35
Less: Dues paid in advance.....	30.00
	<u>\$42,503.35</u>

*Ford Foundation International Relations Study—\$11,830.92*

The Association received a partial grant from the Ford Foundation for International Relations Study in the amount of \$47,600.00. During the year \$35,769.08 was expended leaving a balance at June 30, 1956, of \$11,830.92. This is maintained as a separate fund and is represented by cash on deposit.



## COMMENTS ON ACTIVITIES

As reflected on Schedule "B-1" the total fees received for the current year were \$3,494.28 lower than last year. The total income for the current year was \$2,554.59 lower than last year after exclusion of the reimbursement from the United States Armed Forces Institute of Technology. The current year's expenses were \$2,489.71 lower than last year after exclusion of the expenses which were reimbursed by U.S.A.F.I. of T.

A condensed summary of the income and expense in comparative form for the last five years is as follows:

	Year Ended June 30				
	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952
<i>Income:</i>					
Membership dues.....	\$113,835.00	\$112,165.00	\$109,780.00	\$57,552.50	\$56,857.50
Application fees.....	1,080.00	1,140.00	1,105.00	420.00	570.00
Inspection and survey fees...	10,851.12	15,955.40	11,262.30	15,500.00	7,786.38
Registration fees.....	—	—	—	—	2,688.00
Sale of QUARTERLIES.....	1,753.46	1,520.66	1,672.82	1,422.17	1,471.27
Sale of manuals and schedules	182.75	304.75	304.50	286.29	285.34
Sale of Form A-3.....	3.39	.10	695.22	2,853.82	—
Royalties, reprints and miscellaneous.....	1,694.91	869.31	1,364.25	993.01	1,839.02
United States Armed Forces Institute of Technology....	—	15,802.40	30,069.07	2,899.07	—
Total Income.....	\$129,400.63	\$147,757.62	\$156,253.16	\$81,926.86	\$71,497.51
Expenses.....	119,760.22	138,052.33	138,138.69	90,008.85	75,501.42
Excess of Income Over Expense..	\$ 9,640.41	\$ 9,705.29	\$ 18,114.47	\$(8,081.99)	\$(4,003.91)

The details of the general fund income and expenses for the years ended June 30, 1956 and June 30, 1955, are shown in Schedule "B-1." A further analysis of the expenses are presented in Schedule "B-2."

As of June 30, 1956, the Treasurer of the Association was bonded in the amount of \$40,000.00 and the Treasurer's secretary was bonded in the amount of \$10,000.00.

*Exhibit "A"*

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS  
 R. NELSON SNIDER, TREASURER  
 COMPARATIVE BALANCE SHEET, JUNE 30, 1957 AND JUNE 30, 1955

*ASSETS*

	June 30, 1956	June 30, 1955	Increase (Decrease)
<i>Cash:</i>			
On deposit.....	\$74,299.78	\$49,715.18	\$ 24,584.60
Revolving funds with Secretaries of Commissions.....	975.93	1,563.63	( 587.70)
Due from United States Armed Forces Institute of Technology	—	3,209.90	( 3,209.90)
Total Working Funds.....	<u>\$75,275.71</u>	<u>\$54,488.71</u>	<u>\$ 20,787.00</u>
<i>Total Assets</i> .....	<u>\$75,275.71</u>	<u>\$54,488.71</u>	<u>\$ 20,787.00</u>

*FUND BALANCES AND LIABILITIES*

Membership dues paid in advance	\$ 30.00	\$ 15.00	\$ 15.00
Liberal Arts Education Study....	10,635.51	12,177.14	( 1,541.63)
Institutions for Teachers' Educa- tion.....	9,300.00	7,870.00	1,430.00
Ford Foundation International Re- lations Study.....	11,820.92	—	11,830.92
Revolving funds—Secretaries of Commissions.....	975.93	1,563.63	( 587.70)
<i>General Fund:</i>			
Balance, July 1.....	\$32,862.94	\$23,157.65	
Add: Excess of income over ex- penses for the year ended June 30, per Schedule "B-1".....	9,640.41	42,503.35	9,705.29
	<u>9,640.41</u>	<u>42,503.35</u>	<u>32,862.94</u>
<i>Total Fund Balances and Liabilities</i>	<u>\$75,275.71</u>	<u>\$54,488.71</u>	<u>\$ 20,787.00</u>

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS  
 R. NELSON SNIDER, TREASURER

STATEMENT OF CHANGES IN FUND BALANCES FOR THE YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1956  
 AND JUNE 30, 1955

	Balance July 1	Income	Total	Expense	Balance June 30
<i>June 30, 1956:</i>					
Liberal Arts Education Study...	\$12,177.14	\$ 15,008.52	\$27,185.66	\$ 16,550.15	\$10,635.51
Institutions for Teachers' Educa- tion.....	7,870.00	4,858.00	12,728.00	3,428.00	9,300.00
General Fund.....	32,862.94	129,400.63	162,263.57	119,760.22	42,503.35
Ford Foundation International Relations Study.....	—	47,600.00	47,600.00	35,769.08	11,830.92
<i>Total</i> .....	<u>\$52,910.08</u>	<u>\$196,867.15</u>	<u>\$249,777.23</u>	<u>\$175,507.45</u>	<u>\$74,269.78</u>
<i>June 30, 1955:</i>					
Liberal Arts Education Study...	\$17,421.96	\$ 12,975.46	\$ 30,397.42	\$ 18,220.28	\$12,177.14
Institution for Teachers' Educa- tion.....	8,020.00	3,210.00	11,230.00	3,360.00	7,870.00
General Fund.....	23,157.65	147,757.62	170,915.27	138,052.33	32,862.94
<i>Total</i> .....	<u>\$48,599.61</u>	<u>\$163,943.08</u>	<u>\$212,542.69</u>	<u>\$159,632.61</u>	<u>\$52,910.08</u>



## Schedule "B-1"

## NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

R. NELSON SNIDER, TREASURER

STATEMENT OF INCOME AND EXPENSES—GENERAL FUND  
FOR THE YEARS ENDED JUNE 30, 1956 AND JUNE 30, 1955

	Year Ended June 30, 1956	Year Ended June 30, 1955	Increase (Decrease)
<i>Income:</i>			
<i>Membership Dues:</i>			
Universities and colleges.....	\$ 60,310.00	\$ 59,070.00	\$ 1,240.00
Junior colleges.....	3,575.00	3,575.00	—
Secondary schools.....	49,935.00	49,035.00	900.00
Delinquent dues collected.....	15.00	485.00	( 470.00)
Application fees.....	1,080.00	1,140.00	( 60.00)
Inspection and survey fees.....	10,851.12	15,955.40	( 5,104.28)
Total Fees.....	\$125,766.12	\$129,260.40	\$ ( 3,494.28)
<i>Other Income:</i>			
Sale of QUARTERLIES.....	\$ 1,753.46	\$ 1,520.66	\$ 232.80
Sale of manuals and schedules.....	182.75	304.75	( 122.00)
Sale of Form A-3.....	3.39	.10	3.29
Royalties.....	1,020.62	643.99	376.63
Sale of reprints and miscellaneous.....	395.04	173.07	221.97
Interest.....	279.25	52.25	227.00
United States Armed Forces Institute of Technology.....	—	15,802.40	(15,802.40)
Total Other Income.....	\$ 3,634.51	\$ 18,497.22	\$ (14,862.71)
Total Income.....	\$129,400.63	\$147,757.62	\$ (18,356.99)
<i>Expense (Schedule "B-2):</i>			
Commission on Research and Service.....	\$ 5,964.22	\$ 5,465.09	\$ 499.13
Commission on Secondary schools.....	24,079.25	22,800.02	1,279.23
Commission on Colleges and Universities.....	35,934.74	38,504.67	( 2,569.93)
Executive committee.....	5,168.74	2,648.25	2,520.49
Committee on Organization.....	—	421.76	( 421.76)
Publicity Service Committee.....	3,975.36	4,044.60	( 69.24)
Program Committee.....	306.73	—	306.73
Department of Defense Committee.....	441.90	15,802.40	(15,360.50)
Quarterly office.....	11,257.40	10,859.34	398.06
Secretary's office.....	11,868.77	10,572.08	1,296.69
Treasurer's office.....	3,266.73	2,867.35	399.38
President's office.....	139.63	500.00	( 360.37)
General Association.....	7,041.84	9,382.95	( 2,341.11)
Other.....	10,314.91	14,183.82	( 3,868.91)
Total Expense.....	\$119,760.22	\$138,052.88	\$ (18,292.11)
Net Income.....	\$ 9,640.41	\$ 9,705.29	\$ ( 64.88)

## Schedule "B-2"

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS  
R. NELSON SNIDER, TREASURERSTATEMENT OF EXPENSE FOR THE YEARS ENDED  
JUNE 30, 1956 AND JUNE 30, 1955

Year Ended June 30, 1956

	Budget	Spent	(Over) or Under Budget	Year Ended June 30, 1955 Spent	Increase (Decrease)
<i>Commissions on Research and Service:</i>					
<i>Steering Committee:</i>					
Meetings.....	\$ 1,000.00	\$ 1,010.68	\$( 10.68)	\$ 572.86	\$ 437.82
Clerical.....	50.00	36.00	14.00	—	36.00
<i>Experimental Units Committee:</i>					
Meetings.....	700.00	464.53	235.47	582.79	( 118.26)
Writers.....	300.00	—	300.00	—	—
Clerical.....	50.00	26.57	23.43	—	26.57
Readers and consultants.....	50.00	—	50.00	—	—
<i>Teacher Education Committee:</i>					
Directing Committee.....	750.00	265.36	484.64	647.46	( 382.10)
Council on cooperation.....	50.00	50.00	—	50.00	—
Liberal Arts Committee.....	800.00	751.22	48.78	600.00	151.22
In-Service Education Committee.....	700.00	712.31	( 12.31)	357.54	354.77
Teacher Education Institutions Committee.....	700.00	308.71	391.29	599.98	( 291.27)
Multi-Purpose Institutions Committee.....	1,200.00	—	1,200.00	31.35	( 31.35)
Committee on student teaching.....	600.00	536.85	63.15	—	536.85
Library Study Committee.....	—	—	—	408.94	( 408.94)
<i>Current Educational Problems Committee:</i>					
New studies.....	100.00	—	100.00	—	—
High school and college articulation.....	700.00	658.64	41.36	536.75	120.89
Reading improvement.....	700.00	455.41	244.59	609.68	( 154.27)
Television Committee.....	750.00	687.94	62.06	333.02	354.92
Social experiences and organizations.....	—	—	—	134.72	( 134.72)
Total.....	\$ 9,200.00	\$ 5,964.22	\$ 3,235.78	\$ 5,465.09	\$ 499.13
<i>Commission on Secondary Schools:</i>					
Office expense.....	\$ 500.00	\$ 500.00	—	\$ 500.00	—
Salary—office of Secretary.....	4,000.00	3,999.96	.04	3,797.91	202.05
Secretarial assistance in Chicago.....	300.00	161.40	138.60	131.05	30.35
State Committee.....	9,765.00	9,712.91	52.09	9,750.26	( 37.35)
Administrative Committee.....	1,500.00	1,224.03	275.97	1,857.20	( 633.17)
Office of Chairman.....	500.00	500.00	—	500.00	—
State Committee Chairman meeting.....	5,000.00	5,751.09	( 751.09)	4,455.72	1,295.37
Cooperating Committee on research.....	1,000.00	—	1,000.00	—	—
Activities Committee.....	600.00	637.40	( 37.40)	600.00	37.40
Committee on dependent's schools.....	1,200.00	1,200.00	—	900.00	300.00
Report Form Committee.....	500.00	392.46	107.54	307.88	84.58
Total.....	\$ 24,865.00	\$ 24,079.25	\$ 785.75	\$ 22,800.02	\$ 1,279.23
<i>Commission on Colleges and Universities:</i>					
<i>Salaries:</i>					
Secretary.....	\$ 10,000.00	\$ 9,999.96	.04	\$ 9,000.00	\$ 999.96
Associate secretary.....	6,750.00	6,750.00	—	6,000.00	750.00
Clerical and stenographic.....	8,000.00	6,218.11	1,781.89	6,553.16	( 335.05)
Assistant to secretary.....	5,000.00	5,000.04	( .04)	3,333.33	1,666.71
Retirement annuity.....	715.00	712.56	2.44	675.00	37.56
Travel.....	750.00	777.75	( 27.75)	—	777.75
Office expense.....	3,000.00	2,505.46	494.54	3,229.19	( 723.73)
Dues.....	100.00	100.00	—	100.00	—

## TREASURER'S REPORT FOR THE FISCAL YEAR

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	Year Ended June 30, 1956				
	Budget	Spent	(Over) or Under Budget	Year Ended June 30, 1955 Spent	Increase (Decrease)
<b>Committees:</b>					
Board of Review .....	\$ 3,000.00	\$ 2,364.11	\$ 635.89	\$ 5,145.01	\$ ( 2,780.90)
Athletics .....	500.00	—	500.00	857.07	( 857.07)
Professional education .....	500.00	372.01	127.99	1,246.44	( 874.43)
Reorganization .....	500.00	455.33	44.67	1,487.76	( 1,032.43)
Planning .....	500.00	32.29	467.71	587.45	( 555.16)
Graduate Study in education .....	1,000.00	335.48	664.52	290.26	45.22
Districts .....	1,250.00	311.64	938.36	—	311.64
Total .....	\$ 41,565.00	\$ 35,934.74	\$ 5,630.26	\$ 38,504.67	\$ ( 2,569.93)
<b>Executive Committee .....</b>	<b>\$ 2,200.00</b>	<b>\$ 5,168.74</b>	<b>\$ ( 2,968.74)</b>	<b>\$ 2,648.25</b>	<b>\$ 2,520.49</b>
<b>Committee on Organization of the Association .....</b>	<b>\$ 250.00</b>	<b>\$ —</b>	<b>\$ 250.00</b>	<b>\$ 421.76</b>	<b>\$ ( 421.76)</b>
<b>Publicity Service Committee .....</b>	<b>\$ 4,200.00</b>	<b>\$ 3,975.36</b>	<b>\$ 224.64</b>	<b>\$ 4,044.60</b>	<b>\$ ( 69.24)</b>
<b>Program Committee .....</b>	<b>\$ 500.00</b>	<b>\$ 306.73</b>	<b>\$ 193.27</b>	<b>\$ —</b>	<b>\$ 306.73</b>
<b>Department of Defense Committee .....</b>	<b>\$ 500.00</b>	<b>\$ 441.90</b>	<b>\$ 58.10</b>	<b>\$ 15,802.40</b>	<b>\$ (15,360.50)</b>
<b>Quarterly Office:</b>					
Clerical assistance .....	\$ 3,100.00	\$ 3,099.96	\$ .04	\$ 2,899.92	\$ 200.04
Office expense .....	280.00	186.02	93.98	327.99	( 141.97)
Printing .....	7,820.00	7,971.42	( 151.42)	7,631.43	339.99
Total .....	\$ 11,200.00	\$ 11,257.40	\$ ( 57.40)	\$ 10,859.34	\$ 398.06
<b>Secretary's Office:</b>					
Secretary's salary .....	\$ 7,000.00	\$ 7,000.00	\$ —	\$ 6,000.00	\$ 1,000.00
Clerical assistance .....	4,300.00	4,300.00	—	4,999.97	200.03
Office expense .....	400.00	400.00	—	329.84	70.16
Annual meeting expense .....	200.00	168.77	31.23	142.27	26.50
Total .....	\$ 11,900.00	\$ 11,868.77	\$ 31.23	\$ 10,572.08	\$ 1,296.69
<b>Treasurer's Office:</b>					
Clerical assistance .....	\$2,600.00	\$ 2,599.92	\$ .08	\$ 2,400.00	\$ 199.92
Office expense .....	690.00	666.81	23.19	467.35	199.46
Total .....	\$ 3,290.00	\$ 3,266.73	\$ 23.27	\$ 2,867.35	\$ 399.38
<b>President's Office:</b>					
Office expenses .....	\$ 500.00	\$ 139.63	\$ 360.37	\$ 500.00	\$ ( 360.37)
<b>General Association:</b>					
Travel .....	\$ 1,200.00	\$ 1,187.61	\$ 12.39	\$ 1,190.85	\$ ( 3.24)
Printing .....	6,300.00	2,302.60	3,997.40	4,565.13	( 2,262.53)
Annual meeting .....	2,700.00	2,828.73	( 128.73)	2,821.81	6.92
Contingency .....	275.00	200.00	75.00	273.11	( 73.11)
Social security .....	500.00	500.99	( .99)	504.15	( 3.25)
Past president's breakfast .....	50.00	22.00	28.00	27.90	( 5.90)
Total .....	\$ 11,025.00	\$ 7,041.84	\$ 3,983.16	\$ 9,382.95	\$ ( 2,341.11)
<b>Other:</b>					
Inspection and survey expense .....	\$ 9,937.73	\$ 9,937.73	\$ —	\$ 14,081.35	\$ ( 4,143.62)
Royalties paid .....	373.54	373.54	—	101.97	271.57
Bank service charges .....	3.64	3.64	—	.50	3.14
Total .....	\$ 10,314.91	\$ 10,314.91	\$ —	\$ 14,183.82	\$ ( 3,868.91)
<b>Total Expenses .....</b>	<b>\$131,509.91</b>	<b>\$119,760.22</b>	<b>\$ 11,749.69</b>	<b>\$138,052.33</b>	<b>\$ (18,292.11)</b>



# Publications of the North Central Association

Unless otherwise indicated, address communications to the Secretary, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Charles W. Boardman, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

- I. THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, Editorial Office, 4019 University High School Building, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
- II. Publications produced or sponsored by Committees or Subcommittees of the Commission on Research and Service.
  - A. Unit Studies in American Problems—a new and challenging type of classroom text materials sponsored by the Committee on Experimental Units for the use of students in highschool social studies classes. Charles E. Merrill Company, 400 S. Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.
    1. *Atomic Energy*, by WILL R. BURNETT
    2. *Conservation of Natural Resources*, by E. E. LORY and C. L. RHYNE
    3. *Housing in the United States*, by A. W. TROELSTRUP
    5. *Maps and Facts for World Understanding*
    6. *Why Taxes?* by EDWARD A. KRUG and ROBERT S. HARNACK
    7. *The Federal Government and You*
    8. *Youth and Jobs*, by DOUGLAS S. WARD
    9. *The Family and You*, by HENRY A. BOWMAN
  - B. Pamphlets produced as outgrowths of committee studies and projects.
    1. Study of Teacher Certification
    2. Developing the Health Education Program
    3. Better Teaching Through Audio-Visual Materials. (10¢)
    4. Report of the Self-Study Survey of Guidance Practices in North Central Association High Schools for the School Year 1947-48 and Check List of Elements in a Minimum and an Extended Program of Guidance and Counseling. (10¢)
    5. Better Colleges, Better Teachers—Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue, New York 11, New York.
    6. Incentives used in Motivating Professional Growth of Teachers (single copies 25¢, quantities of 10 or more 15¢ each).
    7. The Workshop as an In-Service Education Procedure (single copies 25¢; quantities of 10 or more 15¢ each).
    8. Improvement of Reading in Colleges and Secondary Schools.
  - C. *Syllabus—Functional Health Training*, by LYNDIA M. WEBER. Published and distributed by Ginn and Company, Chicago.
- III. Publications of the Commission on Secondary Schools, distributed free to members of the Commission and member schools.
  - A. *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*
  - B. *Handbook for State Chairmen and Reviewing Committees*
- IV. Publications available from the Office of the Secretary, Commission on Colleges and Universities, North Central Association, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.
  - A. *Revised Manual of Accrediting*. \$2.00 (unbound)
  - B. Reprints from the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY and other pamphlets available in limited numbers, free of charge.
    1. Annual list of institutions of higher education accredited by the Commission on Colleges and Universities.
    2. National list of institutions of higher education accredited by the six regional accrediting agencies, published by the National Committee of Regional Accrediting Agencies of the United States.
    3. "Principles of Freedom in Teaching and Research," an extract from *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions*, Vol. II. *The Faculty*.
    4. "Know Your North Central Association," 1955.
    5. "Faculty Inquiry into Intercollegiate Athletics," 1953 (A guide to a self-evaluative procedure for faculty committees that may wish to use it).

6. "Athletics in Some of the Better Colleges and Universities," April, 1953.
  7. "The Impact of Foundations on Higher Education." Addresses by ROBERT D. CALKINS, WILMER SHIELDS RICH, and L. K. TUNKS. 1954.
  8. "Graduate Programs of Post-Baccalaureate Study for Teachers Leading to the Master's Degree," 1956.
  9. "Statement of Policy Relative to the Accrediting of Institutions of Higher Education" and "Operation of the Accrediting Procedure."
- V. Publications jointly sponsored by the North Central Association and other educational organizations or agencies.
- A. *Your Life Plans and the Armed Forces*. 160 pages, 8½×11. Paper, \$2.00; *Teachers Handbook*, 8½×11. Paper. 32 pages, \$0.60. Order from the American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington 6, D. C.
  - B. *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*, 1954 Revision: Formal Service Courses in Schools. Published in cooperation with the American Council on Education and eighteen other accrediting and standardizing educational associations. Order from the American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington 6, D. C. \$5.00.
  - C. Publications of Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Available from 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington 6, D. C.
    1. *Evaluative Criteria* (1950 Edition), cloth \$3.50; paper. \$2.50. Complete set of separate sections (one copy each, Sections A through Y) unbound \$2.50; single copy of any section, \$0.25. Separate sections (sold in banded sets of 5 copies of each section priced to effect a saving for schools requiring multiple copies of specific sections): A *Manual*, 90¢; B *Pupil Population and School Community*, 70¢; C *Educational Needs of Youth*, 60¢; D *Program of Studies*, 50¢; D-1 *Core Program*, 50¢; D-2 *Agriculture*, 50¢; D-3 *Art*, 50¢; D-4 *Business Education*, 50¢; D-5 *English*, 60¢; D-6 *Foreign Languages*, 50¢; D-7 *Health and Safety*, 50¢; D-8 *Home Economics*, 50¢; D-9 *Industrial Arts*, 50¢; D-10 *Industrial Vocational Education*, 60¢; D-11 *Mathematics*, 50¢; D-12 *Music*, 50¢; D-13 *Physical Education for Boys*, 50¢; D-14 *Physical Education for Girls*, 50¢; D-15 *Science*, 50¢; D-16 *Social Studies*, 50¢; E *Pupil Activity Program*, 70¢; F *Library Services*, 60¢; G *Guidance Services*, 70¢; H *School Plant*, 70¢; I *School Staff and Administration*, 90¢; J *Data for Individual Staff Members*, 35¢; X *Statistical Summary of Evaluation*, 70¢; Y *Graphic Summary of Evaluation*, 75¢
- VI. *A History of the North Central Association*, by CALVIN O. DAVIS, 1945. Pp. xvii+286, \$2.00 plus postage. Available from Editorial Office of THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, 4019 University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan.



